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Rising tourist numbers in the city of Dublin
-
An analysis of the impacts on the quality of life

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Abstract:

The consequences of tourist activities on host communities have recently gained more and more attention. In many cities the local population has started to complain about tourism negatively impacting their quality of life [Qol]. Therefore, it is important to collect information about which parts of the Qol are endangered since the local population plays a major role in the tourism sector of a country.

In the present study the local population of the Irish capital Dublin serves as the case of research. This is appropriate since the friendliness and the hospitality of the local population in Ireland is one of the most important reasons for visiting the country. Moreover, Dublin has recorded strong increases in tourist numbers over the last years.

The concept of the Qol and the social impact research in tourism serve as the theoretical framework for this study. It is investigated how tourism impacts on different areas of the Qol and how these are subjectively perceived. For that reason, the following research question is derived:

How are the increasing tourist numbers in Dublin influencing the quality of life of the local population?

A quantitative approach was chosen to answer this question and to verify the derived hypotheses. The data was collected via an online survey, which was directed to people currently living in Dublin.

It was found out that tourism impacts on the Qol in Dublin are not dependent on the district where the participants live and for how long the participants have been living there. However, it was identified that people who are working in tourism perceive stronger impacts of tourism and that the perception of economic factors plays an important role in the overall satisfaction with the Qol. Concluding, it can be said that the subjective perception of the Qol was rated as good by a large share of the participants.

The study has practical implications since it contributes to an understanding of the locals´ present perception of the Qol in Dublin. This information can be used to take countermeasures early in case the residents´ attitude towards tourists seems to shift.

Further information:	
Date:	

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List of Abbreviations

CIA:	Central Intelligence Agency
CSO:	Central Statistics Office
DTTAS:	Department of Transport, Tourism and Sport
GDP:	Gross Domestic Product
GNP:	Gross National Product
ISTAT:	Instituto Nazionale di Statistica
NASA:	National Aeronautics and Space Administration
OECD:	Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development
ONS:	Office for National Statistics of the United Kingdom
QoL:	Quality of Life
SPSS:	Statistical Product and Service Solutions
UNRISD:	United Nations Research Institute for Social Development
WHO:	World Health Organization

1 Introduction: Relevance of the Subject

The worldwide international tourist arrivals grew by 7 % in the year 2017 and this increase is expected to rise in the year 2018. Especially Europe reached a remarkable result with 8 % more international tourist arrivals than in the year 2016 (UNWTO 2018). In the first place this indicates prosperous economic development, as tourism leads to economic benefits such as employment. Moreover, it has a significant share of the gross domestic product [GDP] (10 %) worldwide (MCKINSEY&COMPANY & WTTC 2017: 11; UNWTO 2017). However, the experience has shown that tourism can have both positive and negative impacts (WALL & MATHIESON 2006: 6; TELFER & SHARPLEY 2016: 264 – 265). Many destinations are struggling with the 'success' of tourism in their country. The overcrowding of places leads to serious problems for both the environment and the local community (MCKINSEY&COMPANY & WTTC 2017: 8).

Either positive or negative influences, it is certain that tourism influences the destination and its inhabitants in different areas of life. Therefore, this development needs to be monitored in order to not only optimise economic benefits but also to consider this development from an environmental and social point of view (FAULKNER & TIDESWELL 1997: 3). Regarding this, FAULKNER & TIDESWELL (1997: 3 – 4) wrote, that *"this is necessary not only for the purposes of protecting the community's well-being but also to ensure that the quality and long term viability of the tourism product at individual destinations is not undermined by adverse reactions of the resident population"*. Especially the latter aspect has been an intensely discussed topic in the last months. In some places the tolerance level towards visitors has already been significantly reduced *"(...) as the presence of tourists has started to damage the local environment and the quality of life of residents by impacting on public services, such as transport and waste disposal"* (BREMNER 2018). For that reason, it is important to understand the host community in order to avoid uprisings in the local population. Especially since the inhabitants are becoming an ever-larger part of the tourism product (DEERY et al. 2012: 64), the opinion of the local population regarding the tourists should take a higher priority again. DEERY et al. (2012: 64) therefore emphasize the social impacts of tourism on communities as a substantial field of research. Moreover, in recent years the link between the quality of life [QoL] and the consequences of tourism activities gained more and more attention (UYSAL et al. 2016: 244). For a long time usually only the visitors' behaviour was studied and tourism research focused on how to attract more tourists. Therefore, UYSAL et al. (2016: 245) state that *"(...) the critical research question that needs to be fully examined from both demand and supply sides of tourism is how tourism experiences relate to one's quality of life"*. Especially the 'supply

side' mentioned, which in this regard stands for the locals' perception towards tourism impacts, is of interest in the present study. Many authors such as UYSAL, SIRGY, WOO & KIM (2016: 245) state that this is a relatively under-researched topic for what reason this study will address this topic by the example of the Irish capital Dublin.

2 Procedure and Purpose

At the beginning of the following chapter, the main objectives of this study are explained. It is briefly described why Dublin was chosen as the case of research in the present investigation. Moreover, the theoretical framework of this study is mentioned, and it will be outlined how the theoretical basis supports the research. Consequentially, a research question is derived. In chapter 2.2 the two-part structure of this study is presented, and the content of the major chapters is briefly summarized. Moreover, the chosen methodological approach is mentioned briefly. At the end of this chapter an attempt is made to classify the present investigation in the field of research.

2.1 The study's objectives

Dublin, the capital of Ireland, serves as the field of research in this study. Apart from a personal interest in this city, the tourism boom in Ireland in 2016 and 2017 creates opportunity to further investigate the Irish capital. Through the rising numbers of arrivals and visits, tourism became one of the most valuable sectors in the Irish economy. One example is the rapid increase of employment in this sector. However, the tourism boom also brought a lack of hotel accommodation and therefore the fear of wrecking Irish tourism through an increase of tourism volume became loud (GILL 2017).

In a study on overcrowding caused by tourism, Dublin is currently not in an endangered area. Only in that part of the study dealing with 'alienated local residents', Dublin is among the top 40 percent of the sample in terms of overcrowding risk (MCKINSEY&COMPANY & WTTC 2017: 54). For that reason, it is important to remember that large parts of the infrastructure in tourist destinations were not mainly built for tourists. Primarily, many areas were built as a habitat for the local population (GOODWIN 2017: 7; BOCK 2015: 5). This habitat needs to be maintained in order to avoid a feeling of alienation of the local population.

The contradictory developments in Ireland and the social impacts of tourism on the host communities serve as the first thematic anchors for the present investigation. Since the influence

of tourism on the quality of life is mentioned very often, previous research on this topic and the theoretical concept of the quality of life serve as a framework for this study. This is supported by findings of the social impact research in tourism. Hence, the present investigation shifts the focus on the local population and the impacts of tourism on the quality of life. As a result, the following research question is derived for this investigation:

How are the increasing tourist numbers in Dublin influencing the quality of life of the local population?

It is aimed to answer this question by orienting on the following objectives and guiding questions. One of the aims of this paper is (1) to gain an impression about the satisfaction with selected indicators of the quality of life of the local population from Dublin. A further objective of the investigation is (2) to find out whether the quality of life of the local population is/was influenced due to the rise of tourist numbers in Dublin. If this is the case another aim of the investigation is (3) to demonstrate which areas of life quality have been impacted due to tourism. Due to the possibility that the rising tourism numbers can have both positive and negative impacts on the population, another aim is (4) to underpin in which dimensions a positive or a negative development is obvious and demonstrable in the perception of the population. The last aim of the study considers demographics in order (5) to find out whether the area of living or the employment in the tourism sector may influence the perception of tourism impacts as well.

These objectives should be supported by taking on the debate on tourism impacts and a literary research of the concept of quality of life. Although the Irish tourism and its culture will definitely take special consideration, it is strongly aimed to make this study applicable to other cities as well.

The guiding questions and aims outlined above are not only relevant for answering the research question. A detailed analysis of the results of the survey furthermore creates a reference to the literature. Since this study addresses a topic that concerns every part of the society important implications can be derived for a broad range of actors. These may include decision makers, planners, businesses and the whole tourism sector to which additional recommendations could be given from the results.

2.2 This work's structure

In general, this study consists of two parts, one theoretical part and one methodological part. At the beginning of this study, the field of research is described more detailed. Therefore, general

aspects of tourism in Ireland, and more precisely Dublin, are presented. On the one hand, this helps to better understand the tourism sector and its structure. On the other hand, it will provide important insights in the culture of the country of Ireland. However, these chapters (3.1 – 3.3) shall not only serve as a description of the field of research. The information about the tourism development of this country or tourist attractions in Dublin also play a significant role in the further investigation of the perceived impacts on the quality of life. For this reason, chapter 3 will highly contribute to this study from a theoretical point of view.

Subsequently to this chapter, the theoretical basis of this study is illustrated. One of the theoretical pillars deals with the quality of life. As this subject is already recognized intensively in the literature, the main findings are presented and the underlying concept of the quality of life is explained more in detail. The second theoretical access to this study deals with the impacts of tourism on destinations in general and concludes with tourism impacts on the quality of life of the host community.

Both theoretical strands are considered more or less separately, yet a first general connection between the two theoretical approaches is made in chapter 4.2.4. In chapter 5 these two perspectives are finally combined and applied to the object of research. Through this interaction, the most important aspects playing a role in both theoretical pillars are outlined. These resulting theoretical findings serve as the basis for the assumptions about the object of research and thus set the basis for the quantitative survey and analysis. The conducted survey is described in chapter 6 and 7 and is carried out according to the rules of empirical social research, which are explained later. In chapter 8 the results are analysed and interpreted. Additionally, the conducted research is considered critically in chapter 9. Finally, the work concludes with the answering of the research question and possible future research options.

Classification in the field of research

The study can be classified in different subjects of research. Through the disadvantage of the space it can be subordinated to a geographical research field. However, the focus is on social aspects, its impacts and effects, and their subjective perception. Therefore, the present study can primarily be classified in a sociological and psychological research field. However, since the investigated impacts are caused by rising tourist numbers, the research is classified in the field of tourism research in the first place.

3 Case of Research

In this chapter a short overview of the field of research is given. This includes a general information of the country Ireland and the capital Dublin. In addition, the tourism industry is described, including a short review of the tourism development and current tourism figures. Since the city of Dublin represents the main field of research, a description of the Irish capital adds to this chapter. This includes special characteristics of the city and the localization of the most important touristic attractions.

3.1 General information about Ireland and its tourism industry

Ireland, Irish translation Éire, is a country of Western Europe and divided into the four provinces Ulster, Connacht, Leinster and Munster. These provinces are further subdivided in 32 counties, whereby 6 counties in the province of Ulster belong to Northern Ireland, which is under the jurisdiction of the United Kingdom (O'BEIRNE RANELAGH et al. 2018). The republic of Ireland has a population of 4,75 million people (Cso 2016a). Approximately one quarter of the Irish population (1.345.402) lives in the Irish capital Dublin and its surrounding suburbs. This includes Dún Laoghaire-Rathdown, Fingal, South Dublin and Dublin City in the province Leinster. However, Dublin City has the largest share of this with a population of 553.165 people (CSO 2016b).

Since the 1st of January 1973 Ireland is a member state of the European Union (EU 2018a). The public support for Ireland's EU membership remained stable, despite the decision of the United Kingdom to leave the European Union (MURPHY 2017: 517).

From an economic perspective, Ireland was fuelled by high technology growth and foreign investments. Many international big players have their European headquarters in the city of Dublin. These developments turned Ireland from one of the poorest countries into one of the wealthiest in the EU (CLANCY 2009: 5).

The state budget of Ireland included expenditures of $ 87.22 billion in 2017. This was offset by revenues of $ 85.41 billion. This resulted in a budget deficit of $ 1.81 billion (CIA 2018). The national debt amounted to € 200.6 billion or 73,4 % of GDP in the year 2016 (EUROSTAT 2018a).

During the financial crisis in 2008, the national debt of Ireland had quadrupled until 2010. At the end of 2010, Ireland received an € 85 billion aid package provided by the EU and the International Monetary Fund [IMF]. Since then, public finances have largely stabilized, and

Ireland has been able to reduce its sovereign debt through savings and economic growth (REES 2012: 413 ff.).

The most important economic sectors in Ireland are industry, wholesale and retail trade, transport, accommodation and food service activities, public administration, defence, education, human health and social work activities. The sector of accommodation and food service activities, which includes the main part of tourism-based operations, has a total share of approximately 13 % (EU 2018a).

In the Travel & Tourism Competitive Index (TTCI), Ireland ranked place 23 in 2017 at 4.53 points in a worldwide comparison and even holds 12th place on a European level. The index derives its information and data from the World Bank and the World Travel & Tourism Council. The TCCI is an analysis of the factors that determine the competitiveness of a country's tourism industry. In the light of the fact that 130 countries have participated in this index, Ireland's result promises high competitiveness (WORLD ECONOMIC FORUM 2018).

The management and administration of tourism in Ireland is under the protection of the Department of Transport, Tourism and Sport [DTTAS]. It is divided into Fáilte Ireland and Tourism Ireland (DTTAS 2018a). Fáilte Ireland is the official national tourism authority in Ireland. It was established under the National Tourism Development Authority Act of 2003. Its main role is to support the Irish tourism industry to maintain Ireland as a high-quality tourism destination (DTTAS 2018b). It promotes Ireland through the domestic marketing campaign DiscoverIreland.ie (FÁILTE IRELAND 2018; CLANCY 2009: 58 ff.). Tourism Ireland is the second part of the Irish tourism industry and represents the all-island tourism marketing company. It was established by the then Bord Fáilte and the Northern Ireland Tourist Board [NITB]. Its primary aim is to promote the whole island as a touristic destination in overseas markets to sustain the number of tourist arrivals and attract new tourists from all over the world (DTTAS 2018b; CLANCY 2009: 58 ff.).

The tourism industry plays an important part in the economy of Ireland. In 2016, the government earned an estimated revenue of € 1.9 billion through taxation of tourism; € 1.5 billion came from foreign tourism. Moreover, the tourism industry accounted for 4.0 % of all tax revenues (FÁILTE IRELAND 2017: 2). Furthermore, the Central Statistics Office [CSO] estimates the direct employment in 'accommodation and food service activities' (which includes hotels, restaurants, bars, canteens and catering), to be 152.200 people. This is a share of approximately 10 % of the total national employment (CSO 2017a). However, this number

does not include jobs in tourism service and attractions, which are the reasons why actually a higher share of the total employment is expected (FÁILTE IRELAND 2017: 2). The Irish government, in particular the DTTAS, wishes to sustain these positive developments (DTTAS 2015: 7). This aim can also be seen in the tourism policy statement, which was published in 2015: *"In 2025, our aim is that we will have a vibrant, attractive tourism sector that makes a significant contribution to employment across the country, is economically, socially and environmentally sustainable, helps promote a positive image of Ireland overseas, and is a sector that people wish to work in"* (DTTAS 2015: 7). The positive impacts of tourism are clearly seen and promoted by the Irish government.

3.2 Tourism review and figures

The tourism development in Ireland started in the 1920's. At the beginning this development grew only very slowly (MCLOUGHLIN & HANRAHAN 2015: 34). A significant change for the tourism industry in Ireland, just like in many other countries as well, came in the 1960's. Developments such as free trade among nations, territorial integrations or alliances but also more leisure time, a greater affluence and enlarged tourism promotion boosted the tourism industry worldwide (GILLMOR 1994: 19; WAHAB & COOPER 2001: 4 ff.). Moreover, the revolutionary technical progress during this time supported the development. This technological progress especially had a big influence on Ireland due to its geographic location. The introduction of car ferries and the innovations in air travel made the island more accessible for the general public (GILLMOR 1994: 19).

In the 1970's and 1980's, tourism received negative publicity due to the overall political situation in Northern Ireland (MCENIFF 1996: 45). Incidents such as the burning of the British embassy in Dublin in 1971 and the civil unrest in Northern Ireland were reasons for the sudden decline of tourist arrivals, particularly arrivals from Britain (CLANCY 2009: 84). Due to this stagnation, tourism professionals started to promote Ireland in new markets, especially in mainland Europe, which is still the main target group (CLANCY 2009: 84; FÁILTE IRELAND 2017: 2). Hence, towards the end of the 1980s, when the political situation initially calmed down, the Irish tourism industry grew rapidly. Until now hardly any losses have been recorded, apart from a sharp decline in the year 2008 due to the worldwide economic crisis (CLANCY 2009: 136; DTTAS 2015: 5). For that reason, the tourism sector now presents a valuable sector of the Irish economy (MCENIFF 1996: 45; CLANCY 2009: 10, 77; MCLOUGHLIN & HANRAHAN 2015: 34).

The reasons for visiting, today as in the past, are the high-quality natural environment as well as the friendliness and hospitality of the local population (FÁILTE IRELAND 2015: 7; MCENIFF 1996: 45). These and other reasons lead to an enormous rise of overseas tourist visits to Ireland, which grew by approximately 10 % in the year 2016 (FÁILTE IRELAND 2017: 2). The increased air access into Ireland can be one possible explanation for this growth. According to the Irish Tourist Industry Confederation chairman Paul Gallagher, the currently small perceived threat of terrorism in this country is a booster for the Irish tourism industry as well (D'ARCY 2016; RING 2016). However, the tourism boom in 2016 resulted in a lack of accommodations in Ireland and especially Dublin. Hotels and other accommodations had an occupancy rate of nearly 90 % (D'ARCY 2016). Due to these capacity constraints, further rises were not expected in the year 2017 (RING 2016). However, another rise was recorded in the year 2017 when over 10.65 million visitors came to the island (TOURISM IRELAND 2018: 1). Moreover, in the first quarter of the year 2018, an increase of 6,9 % compared to the same quarter in 2017 of the overseas visitors to Ireland was registered once more (DTTAS 2018c). Furthermore, in all types of accommodation an increase was recorded in the first quarter of 2018 (see Table 1). These developments clearly underline that the tourism industry plays an important role in the economy of Ireland.

	2017 Q1	**2018 Q1**
Hotels	2,700.0	3,036.0
Friends/relatives	3,730.0	3,588.0
Rented house/apartment	1,799.0	2,214.0
Guest house/ bed&breakfast	832.0	1,182.0
Other	2,088.0	2,464.0
All types of accommodation	**11,148.0**	**12,484.0**

Table 1: Number of bednights spent in Ireland by Non-residents on Overseas Trips (Thousand) by Type of Accommodation Used and Quarter (own illustration; Source: CSO 2018).

3.3 Dublin City tourism

Dublin City serves as the field of research in the present investigation. The capital has a population of 553.165 people (CSO 2016b) in an area of 117. 8 square kilometres (DUNNE et al. 2007: 97). The city can be divided into five administrative areas: Central Area, North Central Area, North West Area, South Central Area and South East Area (DUBLIN CITY COUNCIL 2018). These are once more divided into 24 postal districts, whereby this division

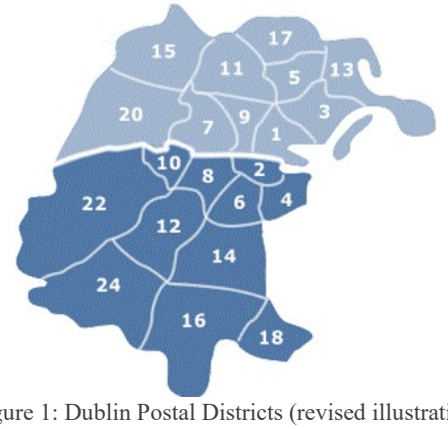

Figure 1: Dublin Postal Districts (revised illustration; Source: DUBLINBYNUMBERS.COM 2012).

solely serves for the assignment of the individual tourist attractions in this study (see Figure 1). Most of the touristic attraction points can be located in Dublin 2 and Dublin 8, which can be seen in Table 2, which lists the most popular visitor attractions according to FÁILTE IRELAND (2017). Only a few attraction points can be located in Dublin 7, Dublin 15, Dublin 1 and Dublin 9 (see Table 2).

Guinness Storehouse Dublin	Dublin 8
Irish Museum of Modern Art	Dublin 8
Dublin Zoo Dublin	Dublin 8
St Patrick's Cathedral	Dublin 8
Kilmainham Gaol	Dublin 8
Phoenix Park Visitor Centre	Dublin 8
Christ Church Cathedral	Dublin 8
National Museum of Ireland – Archaeology	Dublin 2
The National Gallery of Ireland	Dublin 2
Science Gallery at Trinity College	Dublin 2
Dublin Castle	Dublin 2
Chester Beatty Library	Dublin 2
Natural History, Merrion St.	Dublin 2
Trinity College & Book of Kells	Dublin 2
National Museum of Ireland - Decorative Arts & History, Collins Barracks	Dublin 7
Old Jameson Distillery	Dublin 7
National Aquatic Centre	Dublin 15
Farmleigh	Dublin 15
Dublin City Gallery	Dublin 1
National Botanic Gardens	Dublin 9

Table 2: Popular visitor attractions Dublin (own illustration; Source: FÁILTE IRELAND 2017: 11).

In the past Dublin was seen as the gateway into Ireland. Most of the arriving tourists left the capital in search of the green idyll, as this was how Ireland was marketed internationally (MCMANUS 2001: 104). However, this view has changed, and Dublin became a more and more independent destination. A large proportion of the tourists is staying in the capital and is not travelling anywhere else (MCMANUS 2001: 105). For that reason, Dublin has experienced strong increases in tourist arrivals over the past years (DUNNE et al. 2007: 98). Even the above-mentioned success of the Irish tourism development in general is often justified with the dramatic emergence of Dublin as an independent destination. BARRIE (2001: 23) describes the city as *"(...) one of the most exciting cities in Europe renowned for a mix of ancient and modern culture, heritage, pubs and restaurants and nightlife"*. Moreover, Dublin has a rich literature and music history, which is seen as another attraction point and therefore used for marketing purposes (DUNNE et al. 2007: 98). In addition to these general attraction points, Dublin has the most popular visitor attractions in Ireland. This includes, among others, the Guinness

Storehouse with 1,647,408 visitors in 2016, the National Gallery of Ireland with 755,577 visitors or the St. Patrick's Cathedral with 563,000 visitors (FÁILTE IRELAND 2017: 11).

In the past years Dublin captures approximately 35 % of the tourism revenues of Ireland (FÁILTE IRELAND 2008: 2; FÁILTE IRELAND 2017: 5). The number of tourists visiting the Irish capital per year is five times higher than the number of inhabitants (WTTC 2017: 1). Next to Northern Ireland and the South West, Dublin is the most popular destination in Ireland (TOURISM IRELAND 2018: 4).

Due to an investigation of the WTTC Dublin, at over 90 %, has a high reliance on international visitors. This is favoured by airport revenues as 81 % of all visitors arrive by plane. The capital is responsible for over half of the GDP (59,1 %) in the tourism and travel sector in Ireland (WTTC 2017: 1). The city's contribution to tourism and travel GDP increased from € 1.6 billion in 2006 to € 2.9 billion in 2016. By 2026, an increase to € 4.9 billion is expected. Moreover, the capital accounted for 22,4 % of the employment in the tourism and hospitality sector of Ireland in the year 2016. In comparison, the total employment in the tourism and hospitality sector nationally accounts for 39,6 % in the year 2016 (WTTC 2017: 1).

4 Theoretical Foundation

The description of the two theoretical strands is oriented on five steps of the literature review methods of CRESWELL & CRESWELL (2018). It includes an introduction in each of the theoretical strands (4.1 and 4.2). The first introduction is followed by a literature review on the quality of life which serves as the dependent variable in this investigation. Important steps of the research on this topic are outlined and the concept itself is considered more detailed in this chapter. Depended variables are those which are influenced by independent variables (CRESWELL & CRESWELL 2018: 51). Independent variables are those which affect or influence outcomes (CRESWELL & CRESWELL 2018: 51). In this investigation the perceived tourism impacts can be considered as the independent variable. Subsequent to the first theoretical strand, therefore a short review on the literature on tourism impacts in general is made. Moreover, the most commonly mentioned aspects of tourism impacts are listed. Concluding to chapter 4.2, a first interaction between tourism impacts in general and the quality of life is made in chapter 4.2.4. This is done by a summary of the most important findings of authors which address both the topic of the quality of life and the topic of tourism impacts. Since this investigation shifts the

focus on the residents and their subjective perception of tourism impacts on their quality of life, the attention was directed to this perspective.

4.1 The Quality of Life

The quality of life research is embedded in a subfield of the Social Sciences - the social indicator research (RUPPRECHT 1993: 21; KNECHT 2010: 20; UYSAL et al. 2016: 245). The underlying aim of this research field is to describe societies by the help of indicators (RUPPRECHT 1993: 21). However, the quality of life has been investigated in different research fields for many years. Since this study is focusing on the social aspects, primarily the origin and the relevant developments concerning quality of life research in the subject of Social Sciences are considered in the further process. A description of the understanding of the term quality of life in the other disciplines is given in the dissertation of RUPPRECHT (1993: 17 ff.) or the articles of STOßBERG (1994: 107 ff.) for example.

4.1.1 Embedding and understanding

The term 'quality of life' is frequently and almost inflationary used in everyday language (RUPPRECHT 1993: 14). But addressing this topic has also been part of the scientific discussion for a long time. The main disciplines which are investigating this topic are medicine, philosophy, psychology, sociology and economics (RUPPRECHT 1993: 17; SEED & LLOYD 1997: 15). Since researching the quality of life can be assigned to many different scientific fields, there does not exist one consistent definition of the term (BIRNBACHER 1998: 128; RUPPRECHT 1993: 14; KÄMPF 2010: 39). Moreover, the term well-being is synonymously used by many scholars researching in this field (UYSAL et al. 2016: 245).

However, the definition of the World Health Organization [WHO] has largely prevailed and is used in different research fields as it is more comprehensive. The WHO defines quality of life as *"(...) individuals' perception of their position in life in the context of the culture and value systems in which they live and in relation to their goals, expectations, standards and concerns"* (WHO 1997: 1). Moreover, it is stated that the individual quality of life is influenced through *"(...) the person's physical health, psychological state, level of independence, social relationships, personal beliefs and their relationship to salient features of their environment"* (WHO 1997: 1). This definition is used in many scientific studies of different subjects in order to create a common understanding of the term quality of life. However, in different subjects, diverse dimensions of the quality of life are perceived as more important, which may result in a differently directed focus.

One aspect that is common in all disciplines is the question how a high or a low quality of life is defined. Clifford COBB (2000: 6) state in this regard: *"In order to measure quality of life, one must have a theory of what makes up a good life".* This statement perfectly describes the problem which all disciplines must deal with. For that reason, in medicine research it even was discussed to delete the word quality of life from the scientific discussion as there is the question about what is more desirable, quality of life or quantity of life (BELLEBAUM 1994: 10; STOßBERG 1994: 112). In addition, it is often asked what quality means at all, or whether quality is an illusion of progress (SCHULZE 1994: 20). For example, with technical improvements on a telephone, the question of better quality can easily be answered with yes, but not concerning the question of a better quality of people's lives.

The quality of life is often seen as a desirable objective which has developed in a society that has reached a high level of prosperity (GLATZER 1992: 47). This opinion, however, is criticized very much. It is true that until long ago happiness and quality of life were seen as unattainable and utopian goals for the broad masses of our society. However, having a good life is legitimate for everyone nowadays and not only for prosperous classes of the society (STOßBERG 1994: 101; ZAPF 2000: 5). Wealth is therefore not a sufficient degree for a high quality of life (GLATZER 1992: 48). Furthermore, recent publications point out that an indirect correlation is obvious but a direct correlation between wealth and quality of life is not verifiable (MÜLLER et al. 2013: 131).

Another aspect which is worth mentioning here is that two people, with the same income and the same living conditions, can still have another perception of their own quality of life (SWOBODA 1973: 114). Thereby it is evident that the quality of life is a multidimensional matter (PECHLANER & BACHINGER 2010: 5; BRAAKMANN 2010: 611; MARIDAL 2016: 2) as it refers to different areas of living. This also includes aspects such as housing conditions, health, education or natural environment, whereas economic growth is just a one-dimensional aim (GLATZER 1992: 47).

These are just a few of the reasons why the monitoring of welfare and quality of life is often criticised. Uniform dimensions of a high-quality life do not exist. However, there is consensus in most of the scientific fields dealing with the topic that the quality of life at least consists of two dimensions – objective measurable factors and the subjective perception of it (see chapter 4.1.4) (BIRNBACHER 1998: 127; PECHLANER & BACHINGER 2010: 5). The quality of life is the result of an individual evaluation process, whereby the subject of this evaluation is the interaction between the person and the environment (JOCHMANN 2010: 94). Moreover, it is

stated that the perception of the quality always refers to a longer period of time and that experiences are automatically processed by every individual (RUPPRECHT 1993: 30).

However, since the term means something different in each discipline and different metrics are used in order to operationalize it, a differentiation is inevitable in the various research fields (BIRNBACHER 1998: 133). Moreover, a theoretical foundation is urgently required. These limitations can prevent from rating other life situations as good or bad (NOLL 2002: 155). Some authors furthermore suggest defining the term every single time with regard to the hypothesis of the individual investigation behind (RUPPRECHT 1993: 15). Since the understanding of the idea of the quality of life in sociology is most likely suitable in this investigation, the main developments in this research field are explained more detailed in the next chapters.

4.1.2 Origins of the Social Indicator and Quality of Life research

Quality of life research, and the development of the concept of the quality of life, goes back to the 1960's, however, there were some predecessors who had dealt with this topic before (NOLL 2002: 151).

The welfare economist Arthur Cecil PIGOU first of all introduced the term 'quality of life' in the academic discussion in the 1920's (GLATZER 1992: 51; BIRNBACHER 1998: 126). With a critical view of the working conditions at that time he defined the term quality of life as 'non-economic welfare' (PIGOU 1920: 14; BIRNBACHER 1998: 126). Hence, he differentiated quality of life from economic welfare indicators such as the gross national product [GNP]. In his opinion the GNP is an inadequate measurement to indicate the well-being of a society. With this description PIGOU first of all developed the idea of social indicators as an alternative to economic indicators (BIRNBACHER 1998: 126). The idea that economic statistics are not sufficient to measure well-being is still seen as the main reason for the developing of the social indicator research (UYSAL et al. 2016: 245). Moreover, it is still tried to construct new measures in order to complement economic metrics to compare the quality of life across countries (MARIDAL 2016: 2). Since social indicators have a common origin and a close connection to the quality of life (SCHUESSLER & FISHER 1985: 129 ff.), three studies need to be mentioned in this regard. These scientific publications can be seen as the origins in the field of social indicator research (NOLL 2002: 152).

One of the most famous ones was the report, 'Recent Social Trends in the United States', published by the US President Hoover's Committee on Social Trends in 1933 (NOLL 2002: 151). According to Hoover the aim of the report was *"(...) to help all of us to see where social stresses are occurring and where major efforts should be undertaken to deal with them*

constructively" (OGBURN et al. 1933: V). Moreover, Jan DREWNOWSKI (1970: 5) and a commission of the United States conducted a research, in order to improve the measurements for the level of living by identifying indicators and components of welfare. Finally, the Italian Alfredo NICEFORO needs to be mentioned here, as he tried to identify quantifiable symptoms of living conditions. More precisely, he made an attempt to measure the degree of social progress beyond time and space (NICEFORO 1921, cited in NOLL 2002: 152).

As already mentioned, the beginning of the discussion about the quality of life dates back to the 1960's (KNECHT 2010: 17) and was investigated in the United States for the first time (NOLL 2002: 151). Raymond BAUER (1966a: 8 ff.) attributed notable attention to the topic as he was assigned to direct a research program of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences for the NASA. His role was to investigate the influence and impact of the space exploration on the American society (NOLL & ZAPF 1994: 1). However, in this attempt it was found out that there was a lack of data and methods in order to measure these impacts. Therefore, he and his team published some papers of social statistics to make an attempt of an over-all system of social accounting (BAUER 1966b: 341). BAUER can be seen as the inventor of the term and the concept 'social indicator'. He described social indicators as *"(...) statistics, statistical series, and all other forms of evidence - that enable us to assess where we stand and are going with respect to our values and goals, and to evaluate specific programs and determine their impact"* (BAUER 1966a: 1).

The idea of social indicators spread out to many countries and soon after it was a widely discussed topic. International organizations such as the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development [OECD] started to work on social indicators in 1970 and has been publishing reports on this issue ever since (NOLL 2002: 152; OECD 2018). During the same time, the Social and Economic Council of the United Nations started a project, led by Richard Stone. This project aimed to develop a System of Social and Demographic Statistics, in which social indicators played a major role (NOLL 2002: 152).

Addressing this issue did not necessarily bring unique scientific progress at this time. However, due to the high level of interest and commitment, this time is called 'social indicator movement' in the literature (ZAPF 1972: 363; GLATZER & NOLL 1989: 425; NOLL 2002: 152). This movement was supported by the political climate during this time. The prosperity in many of the Western societies led to doubts whether economic growth was desirable as the most important goal (MISHAN 1993: 4 – 15; BIRNBACHER 1998: 126). A post materialistic mood with concerns about further growth spread and especially more affluent societies preferred quality

rather than quantity (KNECHT 2010: 18; NOLL & ZAPF 1994: 2). Through these developments, the concept of the quality of life emerged as a counter concept to the material prosperity of affluent societies (KNECHT 2010: 16). Critics of economic growth such as Erhard Eppler were strong representatives of the term quality of life at this time. In his opinion, the quality of life is destroyed by a purely quantitative economic growth at the expense of human and natural life conditions (GERSTER & KOHL 1994: 236). On this account, the quality of life, with regard to limits of growth, developed as a new, much more complex goal in social development (GLATZER 1992: 53; BIRNBACHER 1998: 126; KNECHT 2010: 19 – 20) and as a separate area of research (SCHUESSLER & FISHER 1985: 130). Therefore, specific social indicators were needed in order to evaluate, monitor and quantify the social change and the quality of life. By providing this information, decision makers should be supported in order to identify problems in society early and to take respective countermeasures (NOLL 2002: 153).

4.1.3 Further developments in the Quality of life research

Apart from the first official social statistics for many countries, the first investigations concerning the way of living emerged during the 1970s (KNECHT 2010: 23). Two studies need to be mentioned here: the Swedish 'Level-of-Living-Study' (JOHANNSON 1973) and the American study 'Quality of American life' (CAMPBELL et al. 1976). In these studies, an emerging interest in micro data can be seen (KNECHT 2010: 23). Moreover, two research trends in the social indicator research, the Scandinavian one and the American one, developed through these publications (NOLL 2002: 156; KNECHT 2010: 23). They can be seen as the two main approaches in order to operationalise the concept of the quality of life (NOLL 2002: 156).

The Scandinavian approach describes welfare and quality of life only by an objective approach. This contains the collection of macro data such as the unemployment rate, total years of schooling or weekly working time. Subjective indicators, which are measured by questioning the satisfaction with explicit life conditions, are not considered in this approach (KNECHT 2010: 23 – 24). A reason for that among others is the criticism outlined in chapter 4.2.1.

The American approach, in contrast, focuses on the subjective perceptions – and evaluation processes (NOLL 2002: 157). One reason for the restriction to subjective indicators is that many authors such as CAMPBELL go along with the perception in the opinion that welfare is increasingly dependent on intangible values (KNECHT 2010: 26). The idea of this approach is often summarized in a citation of CAMPBELL (1972: 442).: *"(...) the quality of life must be in the eye of the beholder (...)"*. Through this development, the concept was more and more viewed as an increasingly individualized concept as it focuses on the subjective well-being (NOLL &

ZAPF 1994: 3). Hence, the initial socio-political focus of the concept has been weakened (KNECHT 2010: 27). As a result, it is assumed that the social indicator movement and its concept of the quality of life reached its peak during this time (ZAPF 2000: 9). However, in the 1980's the term quality of life began to enter other scientific fields such as Medicine, Geography or Sports (KNECHT 2010: 28; BIRNBACHER 1998: 128).

Due to economic problems during the 1980s no reasons were given to investigate the 'other' type of welfare, whereby the former idea of the quality of life lost scientific interest (KNECHT 2010: 28; ZAPF 2000: 4). However, at the same time, social indicator research was implemented on a European level (KNECHT 2010: 28). In the end of the 90's the idea of a high quality of life was compared to or was even seen as the origin of the aims of a sustainable development (ZAPF 2000: 5; NOLL 2002: 161). ECKERSLEY (1998: 6) even stated that *"(...) sustainable development has become a widely accepted term to describe the goal of achieving a high, equitable and sustainable quality of life (...)"*. This new direction, taking into account the economic and social situation of the population, as well as environmental aspects, and the financial crisis in 2008 has led to a series of new initiatives to measure the quality of life (GARCIA DIEZ 2015: 12). These range from a number of aggregate indicators to broad sets of indicators that reflect different dimensions of wealth and quality of life (BRAAKMANN 2010: 611 ff.). One common feature of these approaches is still the criticism of the gross domestic product as an indicator for measuring the quality of life (BRAAKMANN 2010: 610; GARCIA DIEZ 2015: 12). Four different studies need to be mentioned in this regard:

- The Italian project 'Benessere Equo e Sostenibile' (2007) of the Italian statistics office [ISTAT] and the official economic council of the Italian government (ISTAT 2018),
- the programme 'Measuring National Well-being' (2010) of the Office for National Statistics of the United Kingdom (ONS 2018),
- the study 'Wie geht's Österreich' (2012) of Statistic Austria (STATISTIK AT 2018) and
- the 'Quality of life' initiative of Eurostat (2015), the statistical office of the EU (EUROSTAT 2018b).

A detailed description of each initiative can be found among the primary sources in the list of references or in the article of GARCIA DIEZ (2015: 11 ff.). All four studies deal with the areas of economy and material well-being, quality of life and social conditions, as well as sustainability and the environment (GARCIA DIEZ 2015: 17). This underlines that current studies are much more extensive than previous ones. Both objective and subjective factors are taken into account nowadays when measuring quality of life.

4.1.4 The concept of the Quality of Life

The view that there are two different dimensions of the quality of life is commonly acknowledged and recognized. The concept includes an objective component and a subjective component. Hereby it must be noted that the subjective component is perceived differently and thus depends on the eye of the beholder (CAMPBELL 1972: 442, PECHLANER et al. 2010: 18). Subjective aspects of the quality of life are often referred to as subjective well-being, happiness, perceived quality of life or life satisfaction in the literature (UYSAL et al. 2016: 245). However, a clear distinction between the subjective and objective factors is not possible. GEORGE & BEARON (1980: 2) wrote in this regard that *"(...) life quality includes both the conditions of life and the experience of life".* In 1984 ZAPF already defined the quality of life as *"(...) good living conditions which go together with positive subjective well-being"* (ZAPF 1984: 23, cited in NOLL & ZAPF 1994: 4).

KORCZAK (1995: 14) takes a different approach. The author states that the satisfaction of basic needs, regardless of subjective perception, is the basis for achieving the quality of life. He refers to it as 'first order needs', which include food, drink, sleep, love, play, warmth, protection and quiet. Moreover, KORCZAK determines 'second order needs', such as life and human dignity, meaningful work, purity of air, water, soil and food, freedom, equal educational advantages, time and leisure, friendship and partnership (KORCZAK 1995: 14). According to KORCZAK, the satisfaction of these factors makes up for the quality of life. Moreover, the author states that the subjective dimension consists of the satisfaction of one's own needs. This, in turn, evokes satisfaction, well-being and happiness. Satisfaction in this regard, can be understood as the first level of subjective quality of life. Although one has no further wishes at this stage, one may not have to feel comfortable yet. Therefore, this level is more dependent on the individual mindset. In the second stage (well-being) satisfaction is supplemented by emotional satisfaction. Happiness represents the highest and the last level, which is complemented by feelings of happiness (KORCZAK 1995: 15).

Even if the understanding of the quality of live extremely varies (RUPPRECHT 1993: 13), many aspects, which might influence the individual quality of life, are emphasised in many studies and overlap each other. Besides, the afore mentioned factors this includes non-monetary aspects such as health, intact environment, the quality of the infrastructure, leisure- and cultural offerings, freedom of choice, the living and housing space. However, there are also quantifiable factors such as wealth, employment or supply possibilities (GLATZER 1990: 158; RUPPRECHT 1993: 13; STOßBERG 1994: 108; GARCIA DIEZ 2015: 18; MARIDAL 2016: 7; EUROSTAT 2018b).

One perception that most authors agree on is that the subjective quality of life is closely related to the objective quality of life, as already mentioned above. Ideally, a good objective quality of life triggers a high subjective quality of life. This means that there must be certain societal framework conditions that objectively have a high quality of life in order to perceive a high subjective quality of life as well (KORCZAK 1995: 15 ff.; GEORGE & BEARON 1980: 2). This interplay of the objective and the subjective component is shown in figure 2.

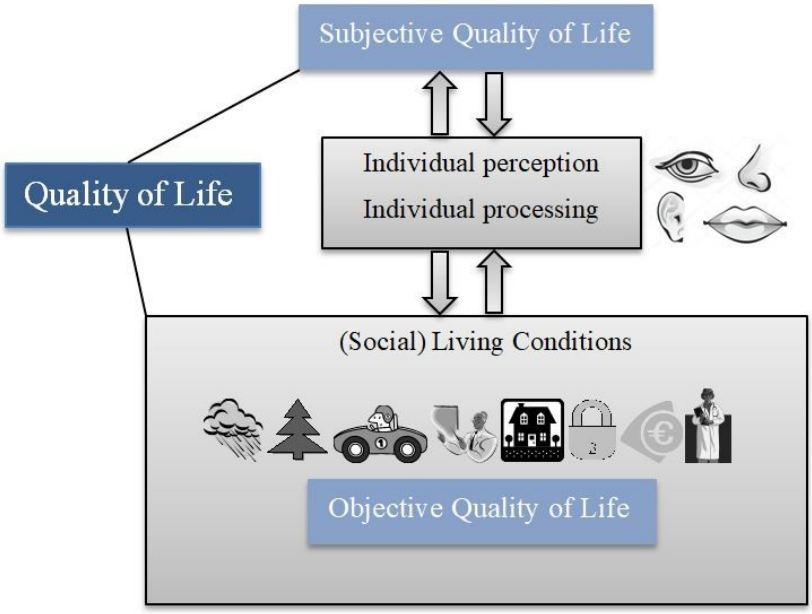

Figure 2: Subjective and Objective Quality of Life (own illustration; Source: KORCZAK 1995: 16; RUPPRECHT 1993: 23; BIRNBACHER 1998: 127).

The assumption that there are two different dimensions of the quality of life is also prevalent in social sciences. Within this subject it is tried to describe the conditions of quality of life in certain societies by means of objective social parameters as well as subjective indicators (STOßBERG 1994: 108). In the past, rather objective factors dominated the field of Sociology (RUPPRECHT 1993: 34). However, since the 1980's, subjective factors have gained importance and now represent the main factors of concern (SCHUESSLER & FISHER 1985: 132). Even within this subject, there are difficulties in the conception of the term. The term 'quality of life' is generally used, however, the focus of research is shifted to the operationalisation, the social indicators (NOLL 1990: 72). NOLL (1990: 76) describes objective social indicators as statistics which represent social facts, independent of personal evaluations. Subjective social indicators are described as individual perceptions and evaluations of social conditions. This means that on the one hand the quality of life, as a measure of well-being, should recognize subjective dimensions such as satisfaction with living conditions. On the other hand, the objective dimension should be recognized, such as the living conditions itself (BIRNBACHER 1998: 127).

In Sociology the quality of life is usually linked to and determined by these indicators (RUPPRECHT 1993: 21 – 22, 33). Chapter 5 describes which indicators are used and how the interaction of the two components of the quality of life is understood in the present investigation.

Measuring tourism impacts on the quality of life

Social reporting, such as the measuring of the quality of life, wasn't widespread in earlier times. In countries which conducted quality of life surveys, the implementation basically was the use and review of economic statistics of administrative bodies (ZAPF 1972: 364). However, ZAPF (1972: 364) already stated in 1972 that smaller surveys can contribute to the overall understanding of the quality of life and can close knowledge gaps since survey research always has been the most important source of information for satisfaction analysis (ZAPF 1972: 365). Today, in most countries of this world there are measurements for the quality of life (NOLL 2002: 164). However, there is still no generally valid measuring instrument (RUPPRECHT 1993:198; NOLL 2002: 167). Quality of life research is not only applied on national level anymore; it is more and more used on regional levels as for example in cities (NOLL 2002: 170).

4.2 The Impacts of Tourism

Tourism has become a strong force for change in many destinations (AP & CROMPTON 1993: 47). MATHIESON & WALL (1982: 4) write in this regard, that *"the consequences of tourism have become increasingly complex and contradictory"*. This perception has gained more and more attention over the past few decades (AP & CROMPTON 1998: 120) and is an even more actual topic than before. Keywords such as 'Overtourism' have been dominating the daily news for several months (e.g. TOURTELLOT 2017; COLDWELL 2017). For that reason, the research of tourism and its impacts on society is more than ever of big importance (DEERY et al. 2012: 64). Therefore, a review of impact research in tourism is made in the following chapters. Moreover, a list of possible tourism impacts is provided and the most important steps in the research of social impacts in tourism are briefly described in this chapter. The chapter concludes with a description of the most important findings in the research of tourism impacts on the quality of life.

4.2.1 Origins of the Tourism Impact Research

Already some years ago, many different disciplines such as Anthropology, Geography, Sociology, and Economics started to examine the impacts of tourism and the society's perception of such impacts (AP & CROMPTON 1998: 120). Ever since, also most of the tourism

textbooks address the issue of tourism impacts and their perception. Examples are the publications of the authors GEE, MAKENS & CHOY (1989), MILL & MORRISON (2002), RITCHIE & GOELDNER (1994), WALL & MATHIESON (2006), TELFER & SHARPLEY (2016). The most well-known book on this topic was written by MATHIESON & WALL in 1982 (AP & CROMPTON 1998: 120), which is still of great importance when getting a general insight into the impacts of tourism.

The first work on this topic during the 1960's was characterized by optimism. The focus of the research during this time was set on economic and positive effects of tourism (PIZAM 1978: 8; MATHIESON & WALL 1982: 3 – 4; SMITH 1989: 6). However, since other disciplines such as Sociology examined the issue as well, the impacts began to be researched more critically. This resulted in an increasingly negative perception towards tourism impacts (see TURNER & ASH 1975: 15; SMITH 1989: 8 ff.). However, COHEN (1978: 218) argued that the pessimism towards tourism was overemphasized and that the overall contribution of tourism has to be considered when examining the impacts. But he states that the expansion of tourism cannot remain unlimited and that apart from aiming economic goals also environmental protection should be in the focus of the planners (COHEN 1978: 234). Hence, in the 1980's and 1990's a more balanced perspective towards tourism impacts spread, and both positive and negative aspects have been investigated since then (AP & CROMPTON 1998: 120).

However, not all impacts are easily measureable (AP & CROMPTON 1998: 122). The reason is that it is often hard to select the right indicators, which indicate the changes in environment, economy or in society most appropriately (MATHIESON & WALL 1982: 5 ff.; DEERY et al. 2012: 64). This issue is briefly described in the next chapter.

Moreover, when talking about impacts, the actual impacts and the perceived impacts are somehow overlapping each other in different studies. Even if both the actual and the perceived impacts refer to the same conditions or facts, there is still a difference. The actual impacts may influence the perception of the impacts, but the perception of it is always dependent on the eye of the beholder (BELISLE & HOY 1980: 85). Many authors such as DEERY et al. (2012: 66) state that the perception of tourism impacts not only depends on the subjective attitude, but also depends on different variables which may influence the perception. These variables include the level of contact with tourists, the distance of the place to the areas with high touristic activities, the economic dependence on tourism, the use of facilities which are also used by tourists, the ratio between tourists and residents in an area, the duration of residence and the general demographics of a resident (BELISLE & HOY 1980: 87; DEERY et al. 2012: 66).

4.2.2 Topics in Tourism Impact Research

In general, it can be said that studies concerning tourism impacts can be categorized in three main topics, even if they may overlap each other at some point. This includes studies with an economic point of view, studies with focus on the environment and ecological aspects and studies with a socio-cultural view. However, all of these topics impact the host community (PIZAM 1978: 8; AP & CROMPTON 1998: 120; GEE et al. 1989: 150) in an either positive or negative way (EASTERLING 2004: 45).

Economic studies mostly emphasize the benefits of tourism impacts (EASTERLING 2004: 45). The economic activity of a host country is significantly increased through travellers' expenditures either directly, indirectly or induced. General examples are represented by employment or income. But also taxes may increase through a higher economic activity (GEE et al. 1989: 150). The reason to research economic impacts of tourism is on the one hand the simplicity to measure this effect. On the other hand, in earlier times these studies were often commissioned by tourism advocates who were supporting further tourism development (AP & CROMPTON 1998: 120). The positive results of early studies in this field partially generated optimism in communities. However, in 1982 HAWKINS already stated that tourism is *"a goose that not only lays a golden egg, but also fouls its own nest"* (HAWKINS 1982, cited in AP & CROMPTON 1998: 121). This quote underlines the fact that tourism not only has positive effects for the economy, but also impacts the environment where tourism takes place (AP & CROMPTON 1998: 121).

This finding is indicative for the second topic of tourism impact research, the environment. Especially the study of the OECD (1980) needs to be mentioned here. It describes the environment as the essential 'good' for further growth (OECD 1980: 7 – 8, cited in AP & CROMPTON 1998: 121). However, only negative impacts of tourism on the environment were outlined here (OECD 1980: 7 ff., cited in AP & CROMPTON 1998: 121). For that reason, EDINGTON & EDINGTON (1986) provided a summary of both the negative and the positive impacts on the environment. However, usually the negative impacts still predominate in the discussion about tourism impacts on the environment. This issue occurs in either a developed or an underdeveloped country or area. While developing areas are mostly confronted with life-threatening environmental problems, such as bad sewage systems or poor water supplies, developed areas have to deal with the consequences of growth such as pollution or crowding (GEE et al. 1989: 164). Despite these clear consequences, environmental impacts are hard to measure as well. One reason is that people have been modifying land for thousands of years

and some parts of the land have been in public use since ages. Therefore, it is hard to measure whether changes in the environment are directly attributable to tourism development (MATHIESON & WALL 1982: 5; WALL & MATHIESON 2006: 6). Among other reasons listed in the publication of MATHIESON & WALL (1982: 5 ff.), another point should be outlined here. It is the difficulty to select the 'right' indicators to measure environmental change. As an example, it is hard to decide whether water shortage is a more fatal problem than traffic congestion. These are only two of a long list of environmental problems. It is challenging to select these indicators which are the most suitable to measure environmental change (MATHIESON & WALL 1982: 6).

The third pillar, which is influenced through tourism impacts, is formed by socio-cultural aspects. These impacts are the most complex ones since they are hardly tangible or measurable (AP & CROMPTON 1998: 122; SAARINEN & MANWA 2008: 45 – 46). The reason for that is that economic impacts somehow overlap social impacts as for instance in terms of employment (GEE et al. 1989: 156). Also, cultural impacts are not easy to understand. In general, tourists demand for local culture and are interested in the cultural heritage of an area. This demand, however, can on the one hand result in a commercialisation of traditions, but on the other hand can guarantee a steady income for the local population (GEE et al. 1989: 159 ff.). However, FOX (1975: 27) summarized socio-cultural impacts as the degree to which tourism is perceived to contribute to changes. These changes relate to family relations, collective lifestyles, value system, individual behaviour, moral conduct, safety levels, community organizations and traditional ceremonies.

These perceived impacts are commonly divided in two categories, the social impacts of the visitor-resident encounter and the social impacts on the infrastructure development and the effects on local resources. The first aspect includes crime, prostitution or cultural gap effects. The latter includes pressure on local facilities, changes in lifestyle, cultural and language effects and competition between local and imported labour (AP & CROMPTON 1998: 121). WOLF (1977: 3, cited in WALL & MATHIESON 2006: 220) came up with a less complex description of socio-cultural impacts. The author speaks of 'people impacts' which encompass the effects on the local population due to their direct or indirect association with tourists.

Many authors tried to list all the impacts of tourism on a destination. A merging of many impacts of different publications can be seen in Table 3. In this table, also a differentiation in positive and negative aspects is made, even though some factors can be seen as positive or negative at the same time. However, this list does not tell us how residents perceive these impacts and whether they are rating them as positive or negative (DEERY et al. 2012: 67). The

list does show the actual impacts but not the perception of it among the host community (BELISLE & HOY 1980: 85). However, some factors which may influence the perception due to DEERY et al. (2012) were already summarized in chapter 4.2.1.

Economic			
Positive Impacts	- Improves investment, development, and infrastructure spending - Contributes to income and standard of living - Improves local economy - Increases employment opportunities - Entertainment and recreational opportunities - Increases tax revenues - Improves public utilities infrastructure (health, fire services etc.) - Improves transport infrastructure - Improves services - Increases opportunities for shopping - Creates new business opportunities - Increases opportunities for new Shops and restaurants	**Negative Impacts**	- Increases road maintenance and transportation systems costs - Increases price of goods and services - Increases price of land and housing - Increases cost of living - Increases potential for imported labour - Increases costs for additional infrastructure (water, sewer, power, fuel, medical, etc.) - Creates high risk of unemployment issues in the case of Seasonal tourism - Increases competition for land with other (higher-value) economic uses - Profits may be exported by non-local owners - Jobs may pay low wages - Increases leakages/propensity to import
Environmental			
Positive Impacts	- Protection of selected natural environments or prevention of further ecological decline - Preservation of historic buildings and Monuments - Improvement of the area's appearance (visual and aesthetic)	**Negative Impacts**	- Pollution (air, water, noise, solid waste, and visual) - Loss of natural landscape and agricultural lands to tourism development - Traffic congestion - Loss of open space - Destruction of flora and fauna - Degradation of landscape, historic sites, and monuments - Water shortages - Disruption of wildlife breeding cycles and behaviours - Number of people in public places

Social and Cultural			
Positive Impacts	- Facilitates meeting visitors (educational experience) - Positive changes in values and customs - Community pride - Opportunities to socialise - Promotes cultural exchange - Improves understanding of different communities - Preserves cultural identity of host Population - Increases demand for historical and cultural exhibits - Greater tolerance of social differences - Satisfaction of psychological needs - Revitalization of culture	**Negative Impacts**	- Delinquent behaviour (Crime, drugs, prostitution, brawls etc.) - Excessive drinking, alcoholism, gambling - Language and cultural effects - Acculturation - Unwanted lifestyle changes - Displacement of residents for tourism development - Negative changes in values, customs and traditions - Family disruption - Exclusion of locals from natural Resources - Natural, political, and public relations calamities

Table 3: Impacts of Tourism (own illustration; Source: AP & CROMPTON 1998: 121 – 127; GEE et al. 1989: 168 ff.; FRECHTLING 1994: 359 ff.; ELKIN & ROBERTS 1994: 403 ff.; CRANDALL 1994: 413 ff.; WILLIAMS 1994: 425 ff.; DEERY et al. 2012: 68; TELFER & SHARPLEY 2016: 264 ff.; SAARINEN 2019: 8).

4.2.3 Stages of Social Impact Research in tourism

In the 1980's the attention to the economic impacts of tourism decreased and shifted to a more holistic view (EASTERLING 2004: 46), such as the social impacts of tourism (DEERY et al. 2012: 65). Reasons for that were the realization that the research hitherto was primarily descriptive (EASTERLING 2004: 48; DEERY et al. 2012: 65). Moreover, it was realized that one very important point is that the growth and development of tourism needs the support of the host community of the respective country (ALLEN et al. 1988: 16; AP & CROMPTON 1998: 120). For that reason, it was important, when talking about tourism impacts, to deal with the local population of a country as well (EASTERLING 2004: 48). The authors LUI & VAR (1986: 196) summed up that the state of research of the impacts of tourism on the community was really spare. They stated that there was an absence of *"(...) a comprehensive tourism theory, a dearth of proven methodologies to measure non-economic impacts, and a lack of strong empirical foundation upon which to base policy decisions"*. This can be seen as the first step of social impact research in the field of tourism. However, during these times all articles, which were somehow related to a tourist-resident interaction, were summed up within the broad field of social impact research in tourism (WALL & MATHIESON 2006: 222).

The second step of social impact research was the development of models through which some circumstances should be explained. Three models need to be mentioned in this context: The

Irridex model (DOXEY 1975), the Tourist Area Life Cycle model (BUTLER 1980) and the Social Exchange Theory (PEARCE 1995) (SAARINEN & MANWA 2008: 46).

The first model in this field was developed by DOXEY in the year 1975. The so-called irritation index is seen as one of the most important steps in the measurement of social impacts in tourism (EASTERLING 2004: 48; WALL & MATHIESON 2006: 226). In his model, DOXEY (1975: 195 ff.) states that the attitude of a destination's population towards tourists will vary and change through time in a unidirectional sequence. Furthermore, in DOXEY's model different stages are passed, dependent on the rising numbers of tourists in a destination (DOXEY 1975: 195 ff.; TELFER & SHARPLEY 2016: 298). This process is comparable to the Tourists Areas Life Cycle since also in BUTLER's model various stages are passed. It describes different stages beginning with a small number of tourists in a destination ending with a high number of tourists and the question how a destination should orient in the future (BUTLER 1980: 6 ff.).

These are just two examples of the models developed during this time, which aim to give a frame for conducting research in this scientific field. They try to explain the assumed connection between the residents' perception of the impacts due to tourism and different variables such as congestion or many other factors from the list above (DEERY et al. 2012: 65). These models were more and more expanded and thus provide a basis for testing. This was the starting point of the third step as in this phase measurements were developed, and research was conducted. In this time the use of the already mentioned Social Exchange Theory became quite popular in order to explain the perception of the local population to tourism development. The theory refers to exchanges between residents and tourists, in which residents are motivated to engage as long as they profit from this exchange (PEARCE 1995: 145 ff.; EASTERLING 2004: 48 – 49).

In the fourth phase the process of measurement developing was continued and the theoretical basis was refined by authors such as CHOI & SIRAKAYA (2005). They developed the so-called SUS-TAS scale in order to provide a framework to continually measure the communities' thoughts about tourism development (CHOI & SIRAKAYA 2005: 385). After the first steps in social impact research in tourism which was mostly descriptive, subsequently a division was made between variables that influence the perception and the actual impacts themselves (DEERY et al. 2012: 66). Some of the variables which influence the perception were already mentioned in chapter 4.2.1. However, some studies also include factors such as the attachment to community or social, political and environmental values (DEERY et al. 2012: 67).

This short summary can be seen as the most prominent steps in social impact research in tourism. However, authors such as DEERY et al. (2012: 67 ff.) suggest examining other research areas in order to better understand the perception of tourism impacts. The research conducted in organisational culture, for example, has a lot in common with social impact research and is somehow confronted with the same issues. In this research field it is suggested to better investigate attitudes, values and behaviours in order to find out how and why perceptions emerge (DEERY et al. 2012: 70). Moreover, it is proposed to use cultural research in order to get a deeper understanding of communities. They state that there are many things in common between the study of communities and cultures such as societal norms or individual values which influence different perspectives as well (DEERY et al. 2012: 71). Through an interaction with these research fields a better understanding of community perceptions towards tourism impacts may reveal. However, the present study solely focuses on the social impacts of tourism which are considered to be the changes of the quality of life referring to the perception of the host community. These changes are seen as the consequences due to any kind of tourism in a destination (WALL & MATHIESON 2006: 227).

4.2.4 Tourism impacts and the Quality of life

For some time, the link between the quality of life and the consequences of tourism activities gained more and more attention (UYSAL et al. 2016: 244). Nowadays it is seen as a topic with a high practical and theoretical relevance (MAGNINI et al. 2012: 51). AP & CROMPTON (1998: 123) wrote in this regard that tourism *"(...) has the potential to degrade residents' perceptions of their quality of life if too many visitors are attracted"*. Moreover, LAMBIRI et al. (2007: 1) state, that *"(...) the social and physical environment of an area can influence the well-being of people residing in that area"*. However, in many cases culture and leisure activities attract residents and tourists at the same time (PECHLANER et al. 2010: 22). For that reason, it is important to establish a balance, since both tourists and residents are an equal part of a functioning tourism system (UYSAL et al. 2012: 670 ff.).

Due to that, numerous studies have been conducted concerning the impacts of tourism on the quality of life in the past decades. The first publication on this topic appeared in the Journal of Business Research in the year 1999 (UYSAL et al. 2016: 245). Both the quality of life of the host community and the tourists were considered in this issue. Since then research on this topic has been slowly rising (UYSAL et al. 2016: 245). The publication of the editors UYSAL, PERDUE & SIRGY in the year 2012 (Handbook of Tourism and Quality-of-Life Research: Enhancing the Lives of Tourists and Residents of Host Communities) is seen as the most comprehensive one

in this regard so far. Basically, the statement of this publication is that there are two main perspectives on how the consequences on the quality of life through tourism are examined. The first one focuses on tourism impacts on the quality of life of tourists. The second one addresses the impact of tourism-related variables on the well-being of the host community (UYSAL et al. 2012: 4). The latter one, the perception of tourism impacts on the host community, which was shortly described in the first section already, is considered more closely in this study. Studies concerning this perspective illustrate how residents see their living conditions and how they are impacted by tourism. The impacts of tourism vary from resident to resident, but usually affect socio-cultural, economic and physical/environmental areas of life (UYSAL et al. 2016: 246). The division in these three categories was also made in the list of the general impacts of tourism in chapter 4.2.2. Since the idea of the quality of life is such an all-encompassing approach, the impacts listed in Table 3 can be equally seen as tourism impacts on the quality of life. However, the perception of these impacts and whether these are rated positively or negatively depends on every individual person.

UYSAL et al. (2016: 248 ff.) reviewed the research on this topic and provide a list containing the main studies. The studies are grouped into three main categories: *"(1) identifying the mediators between the impact of tourism and QOL; (2) comparing different types of community residents; and (3) investigating residents' QOL depending upon the level of tourism development over time"* (UYSAL et al. 2016: 247). Hence, three basic statements, which play a major role in the field of tourism impacts on the quality of life of the host community, were concluded by this review. The first is that the impacts of tourism generally play a major role in the quality of life of the local population. Both positive and negative impacts were identified. Positive impacts contribute to an improvement, whereas negative impacts reduce the quality of life (UYSAL et al. 2016: 251). Commonly, positive economic impacts of tourism are notably recognized by the host community (SAARINEN 2019: 4), while at the same time the host community is concerned about environmental and social impacts which may appear (PERDUE et al. 1995: 4). However, the economic impact is mostly seen as a positive effect on the quality of life (FAULKNER & TIDESWELL 1997: 14 – 15). The second finding states that tourism impacts are not perceived in a similar way by all residents (TELFER & SHARPLEY 2016: 266). People who are directly involved in tourism and benefit from it, as for instance trough employment, have a better attitude towards tourism and report a higher quality of life than people who are not involved in tourism (BROUGHAM & BUTLER 1981: 571 – 572; FAULKNER & TIDESWELL 1997: 9). Moreover, other demographic variables influence this fact as well, such as the place

of living or the level of income (UYSAL et al. 2016: 251). The third observation is that the perception of tourism impacts on the quality of life depends on the destination's stage of development. In earlier stages of touristic development more benefits occur than in a later stage of development. For that reason, the attitude towards tourism in earlier times is better perceived than in a higher stage of development (UYSAL et al. 2016: 251). This fact may also be the reason why quality of life research in tourism also shifted the focus on sustainability aspects (UYSAL et al. 2016: 245). In this regard, PEARCE et al. (1989: 3 ff.) summarized the basic statement of the Brundtland Comission, that the present generation should leave a stock of quality of life assets for the next generation. These assets should not be less than those the present generation has inherited. For that reason, it is important that research in this field focuses on both current and future generations. Therefore, the long-term aim is to avoid the exploitation of natural, cultural, social resources. This promotes the preservation for future generations and at the same time provides a high quality touristic experience to the visitors (UYSAL et al. 2016: 245).

5 Applying the theoretical Basis on the Object of Research

In this chapter the theoretical pillars are applied to the object of research. That means that both the quality of life and the tourism impacts on the host community, the major themes for this investigation, are outlined. This will be done in order to demonstrate how the theoretical part can contribute to this investigation. It is ensured to highlight these findings in the context of both the Irish tourism development and the special characteristics of Dublin. Subsequently, assumptions about the object of research can be derived, which will serve as the basis for testing later on. The procedure to derive assumptions or hypothesis from the theory with regard to the object of research is a common practice in the quantitative social empirical research (CRESWELL & CRESWELL 2018: 6 – 7).

5.1 Tourism impacts on the Quality of Life in Dublin

The residents of Dublin are in the focus of the present investigation and are seen as the host community for tourists visiting Dublin. More particularly, it is of interest how specific dimensions of the quality of life of the local population are impacted due to tourism by considering the rising tourist numbers in Dublin. The impacts themselves are not regarded more precisely. Indeed, it is of interest how these impacts are perceived and evaluated considering the residents´ quality of life. However, the tourism impacts, and the quality of life are perceived

differently from person to person (see chapter 4.1.3) and thus are dependent on subjective considerations made by every individual. For the understanding of these subjective opinions the focus is set on the concept of the quality of life in the further investigation (see chapter 4.1.4). That means that the two dimensions of the quality of life play a major role in this regard.

Many studies use the concept of the quality of life to explain or to further research the impacts of tourism on host communities. Commonly, the tangible effects or the measurable changes on the environment, economy or society are seen as the objective indicators of the quality of life (UYSAL et al. 2012: 2). Intangible changes are put on a common level with the subjective indicators of the quality of life. These intangible dimensions are more difficult to quantify and *"are usually expressed in the perceived importance of impacts of tourism"* (UYSAL et al. 2012: 3). That means that the perception of the residents, e.g. of economic impacts of tourism on the community, may affect the own perception of economic well-being as well. The same applies to social, cultural or environmental impacts (UYSAL et al. 2012: 3).

Therefore, the present investigation predefines that the objective dimension in Dublin is rated as good. This key assumption is determined since different studies on the general quality of life in Ireland and Dublin conclude that the objective conditions in comparison to other countries are evaluated as good (e.g. EUROSTAT 2018c; HELLIWELL et al. 2018: 20 – 21). Especially by looking at the economic growth of the last years, this assumption can be supported once more (see chapter 3.1). However, since the focus of the present investigation is not on the general quality of life but on the perception of tourism impacts on the quality of life, the objective dimension only plays a minor role in this investigation. Hence, the objective dimension stands for the overall tourism condition in Dublin in this case, which is rated as good once again. This key assumption is determined since tourism is well-developed in the whole country of Ireland and the city of Dublin. Furthermore, the tourist numbers have been continually rising for three years (see chapter 3.1, 3.2). However, by considering facts and figures as well as these basic framework conditions, an individual opinion of the local population is not taken into account. This is important to note even if the literature may suggest that the chance for a higher perception of the own quality of life is rather possible when the objective conditions are good (see chapter 4.1.4). Even though the subjective and the objective dimension cannot be considered totally independent (RUPPRECHT 1993: 38), as previously stated, the subjective perception is of interest here. The approach therefore equals the procedure of the American Approach which was mentioned in chapter 4.1.3.

However, not only subjective attitudes and opinions influence the perception of the quality of life. Also, other conditions may exert influence in this regard. At this point an interaction with the theoretical strand of the social impact research in tourism is made. The quality of life in general is influenced by hundreds of matters. Not without good reason this topic is researched in so many different subjects (see chapter 4.1.1). However, it can be ensured that particularly all tourism impacts influence the (perception of the) quality of life no matter where tourism occurs in the world (see chapter 4.2). It is stated that not only the tourism impacts themselves influence the perception, but other conditions may play a role as well (see chapter 4.2.1). This is especially worth mentioning in the context of a city such as Dublin, since certain framework conditions and objective circumstances can easily change within a city. For example, outside of the touristic centres the tourist volume can be much lower. This, may result in a lower traffic and thus in a lower perception of tourism impacts in this dimension. Therefore, the perception of the impacts can be influenced through different factors regardless of the impact itself. This once more connects the subjective and the objective dimension of the quality of life with the influence of the perception of the impacts as well as the impacts themselves.

For that reason, a map of Dublin with the postal districts is added in chapter 3.3 as well as a table with the most important tourist attraction points of Dublin assigned to the post codes. In the literature it is explicitly stated that the perception of tourism impacts depends on the distance of the area of living to touristic attraction points. People who are living further outside may not perceive the same impacts on their quality of life (see chapter 4.2.1) as people living closer to the city centre. Thereby, the first assumption is derived from these findings of the literature:

(1) Residents of Dublin living further away from the main attractions are more satisfied with the dimensions of the quality of life impacted by tourism than people living closer to the touristic areas.

The perception of the quality of life always refers to experiences of longer times, which are automatically processed by every individual (see chapter 4.1.1). Therefore, especially people who have been living in Dublin for a longer time are of special interest in this investigation. It is expected that these people have a different opinion towards the changes due to tourism impacts than people who just moved to Dublin. Hence, the second assumption is derived by this fact:

(2) People living in Dublin for more than three years or less than three years see the adjustments of the perceived impacts on the quality of life differently since Dublin has seen rising tourist numbers.

Moreover, it is stated in the literature that people who are working in the tourism industry have a more positive attitude towards the perception of tourism impacts than people who are not involved in tourism (see chapter 4.2.4). In most cases this is due to economic benefits of tourism which are rather perceived by them than by people not involved in tourism. Furthermore, they report a higher quality of life. These facts give reason for the third assumption:

(3) Residents of Dublin working in the tourism industry or tourism-related sectors perceive stronger impacts of tourism than people not involved in tourism related jobs.

The third assumption is directly linked to the assertion of the literature that economic impacts of tourism are rather perceived positively than social and ecological impacts. This applies not only to the part of the population which is working in tourism. In this case the whole society is of interest. Therefore, economic impacts play a greater role in the overall satisfaction (see chapter 4.2.4) and the fourth assumption is accordingly derived:

(4) The dimensions which represent the economic factors in this study, play a more important role in the overall satisfaction of the local population than social and environmental factors.

These assumptions serve as a basis for the measurement and testing of the perceived tourism impacts on the quality of life of the local population in Dublin. In general, it can be said that a more positive perception of a single dimension improves the overall quality of life. In contrast, a negative perception of a single dimension impairs the overall quality of life (see chapter 4.2.4)

5.2 Selection of the relevant indicators

The choice of the right and relevant indicators has always been a critical step in both the quality of life research and the social impact research (see chapter 4.1.1 & 4.2.1). Especially in the quality of life research the choice of the indicators is dependent on the author of the respective investigation (KORCZAK 1995: 9). Usually, all of the publications in this area do not purport to be complete in terms of the chosen indicators (KORCZAK 1995: 9). In addition, there is no information about what factors are important in which ways. Furthermore, the list of indicators of an objective point of view is endless (ARGYLE 1996: 18). Also, not all factors can be represented equally well in indicators (KÄMPF 2010: 39).

In order to get an indication or framework for the choice of the indicators in this study, a closer look was taken at the chosen indicators of the scientific community from the past and today (eg.: RUPPRECHT 1993; GARCIA DIEZ 2015; MARIDAL 2016). Also, it was considered what cross-nationally used indicators are adduced for measurements on this topic today (eg. HELLIWELL et al. 2018, OECD 2018, EUROSTAT 2018d).

Primarily, however, the investigation rests on the 'Final report of the expert group on quality of life indicators' (2017) of the EU (EU 2018b). This report was written by an expert group which was founded out of the need for a European statistical system when trying to measure quality of life (EUROSTAT 2018d). This final report worked out a system of indicators, based on a scientific research and a comparison to former studies on this topic. This report is widely seen as a framework of measurement of well-being today (EUROSTAT 2018d), which is why the choice of the indicators in this study is based on it as well. In the report 8+1 dimensions of the quality of life are identified. Each of these dimensions includes certain subitems, which are listed in the two left-sided columns in Table 4.

Dimension	Subitems	Chosen Indicators
Material living conditions	- Income - Consumption - Material Conditions	- Satisfaction with the consumer offer - Satisfaction with the Costs of Living
Productive or other main activity	- Quantity of Employment - Quality of Employment - Other Main Activity	- Satisfaction with the labour market
Health	- Health Status - Determinants of Health - Access to Healthcare	
Education	- Competencies and skills - Lifelong Learning - Opportunities of Education	
Leisure and Social Interactions	- Leisure - Social Interactions	- Satisfaction with the Leisure Infrastructure - Satisfaction with the social environment
Economic Security and physical safety	- Economic Security - Physical Safety	- Satisfaction with the handling of delinquent behavior
Governance and Basic Rights	- Trust in institutions and public services - Discrimination and equal opportunities - Active Citizenships	

Natural and living Environment	- Pollution (Including noise) - Access to green and recreation areas - Landscape and built environment	- Satisfaction with the transport infrastructure - Satisfaction with the Environmental Conditions
Overall experience of Life	- Life satisfaction - Affects - Meaning and purpose of life	

Table 4: List of Indicators due to the EU 2018 and chosen Indicators (own illustration; Source: EU 2018b).

The dimension 'Overall experience of Life' in the report of the EU (2018b) is seen as the overall subjective well-being in the report. The present study does not consider the subjective well-being separately from the other dimensions used in this study. More precisely, the subjective well-being is indirectly part of every dimension/question concerning the quality of life since it is asked for the satisfaction with every single dimension. The method of asking for the satisfaction with an objective condition has been a commonly used practice in the measurements of the subjective dimension of the quality of life for a long time (RUPPRECHT 1993: 37, MARIDAL 2016: 4; UYSAL et al. 2016: 251).

Furthermore, some other indicators, which are listed in the table above, are not of interest in the present investigation. This is because the perceptions of the dimensions, which are impacted due to tourism, are in the focus of this study. Although it is stated that tourism influences the quality of life, tourism cannot be seen as an independent indicator. However, as tourism is an interdisciplinary subject, it can be placed in different indicators of the quality of life. Therefore, a comparison with the list of the general tourism impacts was compiled in order to find out which factors play a major role here and thus can be asked for in this investigation.

The indicators 'Governance and Basic Rights', 'education' and 'health' (see Table 4) are not considered in this investigation since they are not directly associable with tourism impacts in the case of Dublin.

A closer look is taken at the indicators 'Material living conditions', 'Productive or main activity' 'Leisure and social interactions' and 'natural and living environment'. For these indicators of the quality of life of the Eurostat the chosen relevant factors of tourism can be subordinated, which is seen in Table 4 in the right column. However, since these dimensions are still only formulated very broadly, another subdivision was made. This can be seen in Table 5. This includes, apart from the overall chosen dimensions, a further distinction representing

the factors used later on. How these dimensions were applied in the survey can be seen in the questionnaire in Appendix 1.

Chosen Indicators	Subitems
- Satisfaction with the consumer offer	- Overall - shopping opportunities for daily needs - gastronomic opportunities - shopping opportunities (fashion etc.)
- Satisfaction with the costs of living	- Overall - rental prices - property prices - prices for daily needs
- Satisfaction with the labour market	- Overall - diversity of jobs - amount of job offers
- Satisfaction with the leisure infrastructure	- Overall - opportunity to do sports - cultural offer - opportunity for local recreation)
- Satisfaction with the social environment	- Overall - helpfulness of the population - tolerance of the population
- Satisfaction with the handling of delinquent behavior	- Overall - dealing with crime - dealing with alcohol offenses - dealing with brawls
- Satisfaction with the transport infrastructure	- Overall - the usability of public transport - options of public transport
- Satisfaction with the environmental conditions	- Overall - the cleanliness of the city - the level of noise in the city - the waste disposal
- Satisfaction with the presentation of the Irish culture	- Overall - offer of pubs - offer of live music - historical and literary offer - offer of Irish dance - offer of Irish sport events

Table 5: Chosen Indicators and Subdimensions (own illustration).

The last dimension concerning the satisfaction with the presentation of the Irish culture shall be considered as an extra dimension in this study. All the other dimensions were broadly formulated while this dimension directly refers to the object of research. The subitems in this case are chosen according to which factors best constitute Irish cultural heritage (see chapter 3.3).

In this chapter the application of the theoretical part to the object of research was described more detailed. How this is implemented in the survey later on, is considered in the following chapters 6 and 7.

6 Methodological Approach

Based on the theoretical embedding of the topic, the methodological approach is explained in this chapter. Therefore, the criteria of a quantitative research process are explained. Moreover, the procedure of a post positivistic research is briefly discussed. Since the quality of life can be understood as a macro concept and every resident of Dublin should be considered equally, a quantitative approach is appropriate. This increases the accessibility (KNECHT 2010: 20). A quantitative approach in the quality of life research refers to an American approach in the literature (see chapter 4.2.2) (KNECHT 2010: 27).

6.1 Quantitative empirical social research

During the 19th and 20th century quantitative approaches in research were used for the first time. Quantitative approaches mainly originated in the field of Psychology and invoked a post positivist worldview (CRESWELL & CRESWELL 2018: 11). In the post positivist view, a deterministic philosophy is held, in which causes (probably) determine outcomes and effects. In this paradigm it is tried to assess and identify these causes (CRESWELL & CRESWELL 2018: 6).

For this purpose, a theoretical basis is worked out beforehand, which sets the point of view on the object of investigation. This narrows the idea of the potential reasons for the specific outcomes. By deriving hypotheses, assumptions and the research question from the theory, the idea is reduced and compressed (CRESWELL & CRESWELL 2018: 6). The idea is investigated within this theoretical frame in order to verify, falsify or refine this theory with new knowledge and data (CRESWELL & CRESWELL 2018: 6 – 7). This procedure refers to a deductive approach (KROMREY 2006: 53; RAAB-STEINER & BENESCH 2015: 17).

Since there is already a well-founded knowledge in theory for both theoretical parts (the quality of life research and tourism impact research), a quantitative approach was chosen for this study. Moreover, a quantitative approach appears more adequate since qualitative approaches in the quality of life research are often criticised due to their lack of objectivity, replicability, generalizability and validity (MAGNINI et al. 2012: 60). Since quantitative research pursues a

theory-checking practice, the already described theoretical approaches (chapter 3 and 4) are used as a basis for the application to the object of research (the local population of Dublin City). Accordingly, the assumptions in chapter 5.1 were also derived from the theory and are now reviewed in the further process of research.

In the view of critical rationalism, the procedure in the derivation of the hypotheses does not matter. However, the hypotheses must be set up before the beginning of the research process and, in principle, they must be able to be rejected. This is called falsification in quantitative research. Furthermore, the hypotheses must refer to the same object (the local population) and must not contradict or exclude each other (KROMREY 2006: 52 ff.)

Like any other form of scientific inquiry, statistical research should also fulfil the core requirements of reliability, validity and objectivity. Reliability is the formal accuracy of a measurement that would produce the same results if the survey was repeated under the same initial conditions. Reliability is closely related to validity, which relates to the validity of research methods. Therefore, it indicates whether the chosen measuring instrument is suitable for the testing of the hypothesis. The quality criterion of objectivity represents the extent to which the results of the measurement instrument are independent of the person applying it (PETERSON 2000: 79 – 80; KROMREY 2006: 400; RAAB-STEINER & BENESCH 2015: 53).

6.2 Online survey research

There are different approaches in quantitative research (CRESWELL & CRESWELL 2018: 12). However, in this chapter only the survey research used in the present investigation is described more detailed. The survey research provides a numeric description of attitudes, trends or opinions by investigating a sample of the population. Three types of questions can be answered through survey research: descriptive questions, questions about the relationships between variables and questions about predictive relationships between variables over a longer time (CRESWELL & CRESWELL 2018: 147).

In a survey, participants are presented questions in a written form, which have to be answered independently. This kind of inquiry has many advantages since it is relatively inexpensive and easy to implement. In addition, a survey is good for large homogeneous groups and especially the possibility to be disseminated through the internet makes it more popular. However, there are many difficulties as well. In contrast to qualitative research for example, a high degree of structure is needed at the beginning. Moreover, it is not possible to intervene or control the survey situation (RAAB-STEINER & BENESCH 2015: 48 – 49).

The internet has affected research in all subjects since it provides a huge variety of survey opportunities (LEE et al. 2008: 3 ff.). Both qualitative and quantitative approaches make use of the internet. Examples for qualitative research on the internet are online focus groups (GAISER 2008: 290 ff.) or internet-based interviewing (O'CONNOR et al. 2008: 271 ff.). The main use of internet research in quantitative approaches are the online surveys (VEHOVAR & LOZAR MANFREDA 2008: 178). Advantages of this method are that it is relatively inexpensive since there are no telephone or mailing costs and only a hyperlink needs to be forwarded to the participants (NESBARY 2000: 41 – 42). Moreover, due to the access to the internet of most parts of the world's population it is relatively easy to reach suitable participants (LEE et al. 2008: 4). Furthermore, the distribution of the survey is relatively simple and not as time-consuming as face-to-face surveys. In addition, the participants can complete the questionnaire wherever and whenever they want. Hence, more privacy is given in this method (VEHOVAR & LOZAR MANFREDA 2008: 179; DIEKMANN 2013: 522). However, there are disadvantages as well. The group of internet users does not correspond to the target population of the general population. This is called Coverage-Error. Therefore, the choice of the participants does not present a random selection (DIEKMANN 2013: 520). How such selection is done in this study is explained in chapter 7.2.

7 Implementation of the Survey

In this chapter the conduction of the survey is described. In the first part, the creation of the questionnaire is explained. The content of the questionnaire is derived from the theory and created according to the guidelines of general textbooks as for example by the author PORST (2014: 169ff.). Moreover, it was oriented on previous studies dealing with the measurement of the quality of life and its indicators. In addition, in this chapter the general approach of the study is described, including the softwares used for this study and the selection of the participants.

7.1 Creation of the questionnaire

In the creation of the questionnaire the principles of question formulation are considered. This means that those questions influencing the respondents and hypothetical questions are avoided. Moreover, unclear terms are defined and all questions are based on a simple and easy-to-understand wording (PETERSON 2000: 13 ff.).

The present questionnaire (see Appendix 1) is divided in four parts. The first part asks about the general perception of Dublin. The Second part queries the quality of life. The third part deals with the changes due to tourism and the last part includes general sociodemographic questions, which may influence the perceived impacts of tourism (DEERY et al. 2012: 66).

The first two questions actually belong to the sociodemographic question block in the end. However, in this questionnaire the first question serves as a condition question for the desired target group of this survey. In this question the participants, who are not living in Dublin, are filtered out since only the local population living in Dublin City is of interest here. Those filtered out had the possibility to write where they are from if they wanted to.

The third question is a polarity profile about Dublin as a travel destination from the locals' point of view. It serves to ask for personal opinions and perceptions. This is made through polar adjectives which are describing Dublin (KALLUS 2010: 150).

The second part of the questionnaire refers to the quality of life in Dublin and the impacts on it (questions 4 – 13). The dimensions which are of interest here are explained in chapter 5.2. These blocks can be subordinated in ecological, economic, and sociocultural questions. However, they are overlapping each other in some cases. In these question blocks the general satisfaction and more specific themes in the area of the quality of life are questioned. Therefore, a four-category Likert scale is used. The aim of this method is a scaling on item level (PETERSON 2000: 75; KALLUS 2010: 73). The answer options were 'very satisfied', 'rather satisfied', 'rather dissatisfied' and 'very dissatisfied' (PETERSON 2000: 96 – 97). The use of a scale with an even number has the advantage of not offering a neutral position (RAAB-STEINER & BENESCH 2015: 60). However, it is possible to choose 'no answer' if one does not want to answer the questions. Question 12 serves as a reference to the Irish culture in this study, but is considered as a separate point, which counts to the other dimensions of the quality of life. Question 13 is an overall rating of the quality of life and is mainly asked in order to get an opinion by considering all the dimensions asked.

The third part of the questionnaire (questions 14 – 18) aims to get an impression about the tourists in Dublin. In this part of the questionnaire, two closed questions in a dichotomous answer format are used (question 14 & 15) (PETERSON 2000: 36 ff.). Hence, the participant has to decide for one option. This is called 'forced choice' in the literature. The advantage of this format is the simplicity in answering and the short processing time (RAAB-STEINER & BENESCH 2015: 58).

Especially question 15 is of great interest since it alludes to the rising tourism numbers of the past years. In this question the participants are filtered again. The ones who did not perceive rising tourism numbers in the past years are directly forwarded to the sociodemographic block at the end of the questionnaire. Those who realized the rising tourist numbers, go ahead to further questions about the influence of the tourists. Question 16 is directly formulated on the adjustments due to tourism, respective to the dimensions of the quality of life which were asked before (questions 4 – 13). In this question positive formulated sentences are used in order to evaluate the adjustments since Dublin has seen rising tourist numbers. Again, a four-category Likert scale is used with the answer options 'strongly agree', 'rather agree', 'rather disagree' and 'strongly disagree'.

Question 17 refers to the queried impacts again. In particular, it asks for the wish of improvements of the respective impacts. Here, the terms can be sorted according to the personal level of importance for each participant.

The open question (18) at the end of the third part serves to get an insight whether tourists play a role in other areas of life as well. Open questions are often criticised since it is difficult to evaluate and analyse them due to the difficulty to compare them. However, in this questionnaire it was deliberately decided to use this question form in order not to steer the participants by given answers and uncover other areas not queried throughout the questionnaire (RAAB-STEINER & BENESCH 2015: 52 – 53).

The last part of the questionnaire includes socio-demographic questions. Usually, these questions are asked in order to gather information about the participants (PETERSON 2000: 84). In general, this allows the researcher to compare different subgroups such as males or females (PETERSON 2000: 84). In this survey it is asked for gender, age and whether the participant works in the tourism industry. In this survey this information is not only collected because of general interest. In particular, answers in question 1 or 21 may also influence the perception of tourism impacts, which is already mentioned in chapter 5 (DEERY et al. 2012: 66).

7.2 Survey study plan

As already mentioned, the assumptions referring to the topic of quality of life and tourism impacts were derived from the literature. This process, including the literature review and application on the object of research, lasted three to four months (May – August). In order to answer, falsify or verify these assumptions a questionnaire was created, which is explained in chapter 7.1.

In order to conduct the survey, the open source survey software LimeSurvey is used. In this programme a survey can be generated, designed and approved. Moreover, a simple form of evaluation is provided after completing the study. If a more detailed evaluation is needed, the data can be exported in the statistical programmes R and SPSS (LIMESURVEY 2018). In order to use this data after closing the study a structured approach by creating the questionnaire is required. During this creation the coding of the answer options is already made. This means that variables (e.g. gender) are assigned to a numerical code according to their characteristic. For example, all male participants are assigned to code 1 and all female participants are assigned to code 2 (KROMREY 2006: 233 – 234). That way all the answer options are assigned to numerical codes.

The finalisation of the questionnaire was made at the end of July. After that, a pre-testing was carried out in order to check the usability and quality of the questionnaire. This can be seen as a rehearsal in order to recheck the process time and the understanding of the questions. In this way problems in the analysis can be avoided beforehand (PETERSON 2000: 115 ff.; KALLUS 2010: 150; RAAB-STEINER & BENESCH 2015: 63 – 64). After that the questionnaire was revised. In this process, for example the formerly five-category Likert scale was changed into a four-category Likert scale since the answer option 'uncertain' was chosen in most of the pretested questionnaires. Subsequently, the actual conduction of the survey started in August and ran until the beginning of September.

The participants of the survey were chosen according to a judgement sample method. That means that relevant criteria for the participants are determined before the conduction. In this case it is required that the participants live in Dublin at the moment of filling in the survey (DIEKMANN 2013: 378 – 379). However, this criterion is independent of the researched topic (the influence of tourism impacts on the quality of life). This selection is done by question 1 in the questionnaire (see Appendix 1). The questionnaire is spread in social networks such as Facebook groups or Instagram channels. For that reason, only those persons who are part of these channels can participate in the survey. However, the link can be forwarded by any person. Hence, it is also possible to get access to the survey in a different way. Even if this sample frame has some limitations as well (see chapter 6.2), it is the best solution for this study since a large face-to-face survey is not possible within this work. However, the population of internet users in Dublin does not correspond to the target population of the general survey population of Dublin. But in Dublin 93 % of the population has access to the internet (CSO 2017b), so only 7 % wouldn't have been able to take part in the survey.

Questioning the locals by a survey can be seen as social reporting, which represents the most successful application of social indicator research. In this approach the quality of life is described and analysed with empirical data (NOLL 1996: 7). The question blocks in the questionnaire represent the indicators that affect the quality of life due to tourism. For this reason, the decision was made to survey the local population as a target group because the influences are best perceived by the individual citizens and can thus be best judged by them (CAMPBELL 1972: 442).

After finishing the study, a statistical analysis and statistical interpretation is carried out. Therefore, the assumptions formulated in chapter 5.1 can be verified or falsified. The results are summarized in chapter 8. Moreover, a review of the whole study is made, and the scopes and limitations are summed up in chapter 9. On this basis a conclusion is drawn in chapter 10.

8 Results and Interpretation

In the following chapter the process starting from the preparation of the data until the interpretation is described. Therefore, in the first part general data of the survey´s participants is provided. Moreover, it was taken a closer look to the structure of the data. In this step, some of the variables were aggregated to new variables as well. Subsequently, different analysis techniques are used to verify or falsify the assumptions derived from the literature. In a further step, these results are used in order to answer the research question in the conclusion. Moreover, those questions of the survey, which are not directly needed to verify the assumptions, are used for additional information about the topic and to underpin some statements.

8.1 Procedure and general data

To use the data provided by the online tool LimeSurvey it was edited for the statistical program SPSS. For this purpose, the type and the measure were adapted to the respective output of LimeSurvey. Especially the measure plays an important role for the further analysis. In this step the data of question 4 – 13 and 16 are reassigned as metric data (interval scaled) since it shall be assumed that the distances between the answers are quantifiable. This is a common practice in different fields of research since a more detailed analysis becomes possible through such a procedure (DÖRING & BORTZ 2016: 244 ff.). Moreover, missing values were coded as 99 to differentiate them from the missing values of discontinued questionnaires. Furthermore, question 16.5 was recoded since the formulation in the questionnaire was not accurately

expressed. Hence, the primarily negative associated item turned into a positive item ('I perceive higher costs' → 'I perceive lesser costs'). After these initial steps, the data was prepared for carrying out different statistical analysis.

8.1.1 Sample Specification

Frequencies

The overall response rate was 337 participants. 29 people were filtered out through question 1 as they did not fit in the desired target group (see Appendix 1). 75 returned questionnaires were eliminated since they were only partially completed. 233 questionnaires were finally used for the data analysis representing the overall sample size of this study.

The description of the sociodemographic data of the sample is summarized in Table 6. There were participants from almost every district in Dublin whereby Dublin 1 and Dublin 8 have the largest share of participants with approximately 11 % each. The question for the length of living in Dublin shows that most of the people who took part in the survey have been living in Dublin for 1 – 3 years (30 %), closely followed by people living there for 4 – 10 years (27,5 %). However, no greater differences were constituted in the answers of this question.

About 46,4 % of the participants were between the ages of 26 – 35. No participant of the survey was under 18 or over 66 years of age. The clear majority of the participants were female (64,4 %); men had a share of 21,5 %. More than half of the participants (54,5 %) stated that they had never been employed in tourism or a tourism related sector. 13,3 % are currently working in this sector and 18 % used to work in tourism (see Table 6).

Category	**Frequencies**	**Percentages (%)**	**Category**	**Frequencies**	**Percentages (%)**
Area of living in Dublin (n = 337)			**Age (n = 233)**		
Dublin 1	39	11,6	Under 18 years of age	0	0,0
Dublin 2	18	5,3	18 - 25 years of age	39	16,7
Dublin 3	12	3,6	26 - 35 years of age	108	46,4
Dublin 4	19	5,6	36 - 45 years of age	41	17,6
Dublin 5	8	2,4	46 - 55 years of age	7	3,0
Dublin 6	26	7,7	56 – 65 years of age	3	1,3
Dublin 7	33	9,8	66 and older	0	0,0
Dublin 8	37	11,0	No answer	2	0,9
Dublin 9	14	4,2			
Dublin 10	7	2,1	Missing	33	14,2

Dublin 11	10	3,0	**Gender (n = 233)**		
Dublin 12	7	2,1			
Dublin 13	9	2,7	Female	150	64,4
Dublin 14	10	3,0	Male	50	21,5
Dublin 15	16	4,7	Other	2	0,9
Dublin 16	10	3,0			
Dublin 17	1	0,3	Missing	31	13,3
Dublin 18	12	3,6			
Dublin 19	0	0,0	**Employment in the tourism sector (n = 233)**		
Dublin 20	1	0,3			
Dublin 21	0	0,0	Yes, I am currently working in tourism or a tourism related job	31	13,3
Dublin 22	9	2,7			
Dublin 23	0	0,0	No, but I used to work in the tourism industry	42	18,0
Dublin 24	10	3,0			
I don't live in Dublin	26	7,7	No, I have never worked in a tourism related business	127	54,5
No answer	3	0,9			
Years living in Dublin (n = 233)			Missing	33	14,2
Less than 1 year	46	19,7			
1 - 3 years	70	30,0			
4 - 10 years	64	27,5			
More than 10 years	53	22,7			
Missing	0				

Table 6: Demographic profile of the participants (own calculation, based on the quantitative data).

Cross tables of general demographics and influencing factors

To get an overview of the large dataset, different cross tables were calculated by SPSS. It is done to detect first connections between different variables and to visualize and summarize the set of data.

In Table 7 gender combined with work experience in tourism can be seen. Out of 150 women who participated in the survey 24 are currently working in the tourism sector. Moreover, another 30 women used to work in this sector and therefore have experience in this field as well. In contrast to that, only 7 of the 50 male participants are currently working in tourism.

	Yes, I am currently working in tourism or a tourism related job.	No, but I used to work in the tourism industry.	No, I have never worked in a tourism related business.	Missing	**Overall**
Gender					
Female	24	30	94	2	150
Male	7	12	31	0	50
Other	0	0	2	0	2
Overall	31	42	127	31	233

Table 7: Gender & work experience in Tourism crosstab (own calculation, based on the quantitative data).

Moreover, a cross table was calculated for the connection between the question whether the participants are getting in touch with tourists in their everyday lives and their area of living (see Table 8). Column 4 shows that 36 people are living in a very touristic area in Dublin. More than

half of them get in touch with tourists in their everyday lives. In contrast to the non-touristic district, fewer people get in touch with tourists in their everyday lives.

Do you get in touch with tourists in your everyday life?	Non - touristic district	Less touristic district	Very touristic district	**Overall**
Yes	39	31	19	89
No	67	39	17	123
Overall	106	70	36	212

Table 8: Area of living & meeting tourists crosstab (own calculation, based on the quantitative data).

The last cross table shows the connection between the awareness of the rising tourist numbers and the working experience in the tourism sector (see Table 9). Only a few people who have working experience in tourism did not realize the rising tourist numbers (see column 2). The number of those who have realized the rise is relatively high.

Have you noticed the rising tourist numbers of Dublin in recent years?	Yes, I am currently working in tourism or a tourism related job.	No, but I used to work in the tourism industry.	No, I have never worked in a tourism related business.	Missing	**Overall**
Yes	28	35	88	12	163
No	3	7	39	0	49
Overall	31	42	127	12	212

Table 9: Rising tourist numbers & work experience in tourism crosstab (own calculation, based on the quantitative data).

8.1.2 Advanced Statistical Methods

Factor Analysis

After preparing the data a factor analysis was conducted by using SPSS. According to TURNER & VU (2012: 183) this is an important tool in tourism research since tourism often deals with unstructured data. It is used to detect a latent data structure in the data set (TURNER & VU 2012: 184). This test indicates how well the individual items, in each case are to be summarized to a total test value or to several subtest values (DÖRING & BORTZ 2016: 479). In this case it was used to find out whether the chosen indicators (questions 4 – 12) are suitable for measuring the dimensions of the quality of life in Dublin. The output of the explorative factor analysis can be seen in Appendix 2. The results have been very satisfying since almost every chosen indicator can be represented on a single dimension/factor. This can be seen in the relatively high values of the items (e.g. question 9 → 0,779; 0,714; 0,703). All related factors are coloured in the Matrix (see Appendix 2). Only questions 6 and 7 cannot be accurately represented on two different dimensions since the values of the item 6 are around 0,5 (FROMM 2008a: 330). For that reason, it was decided to combine these two dimensions to a total test value later since the factor analysis established a relationship between them.

Reliability analysis

Furthermore, a reliability analysis was conducted. This analysis is used to justify that the selected items (subquestions) represent the respective dimension (FROMM 2008a: 315). This is referred to as the contingency of a scale in the literature (FROMM 2008a: 315 – 316). In this analysis the values of Cronbachs Alpha are of interest. The value can have a range between 0 and 1. Empirical values above 0,8 are commonly accepted (SCHUMANN 2011: 42). In this case that means that the higher this value is, the better the indicator is represented by the subquestions. This was done for every single dimension, which can be seen in Table 10. Only question 8 and its subquestions show a value under 0,8. However, since also this value is approximately 0,8 it is used in the further analysis. Even question 12, referring to the Irish culture, shows satisfactory results.

Dimension:	Labour Market (Q 4)	Publ. transport infra. (Q 5)	Leisure infra. & consumer offer (Q 6 & 7)	Costs of Living (Q 8)	Soc. Environment (Q 9)	Handlingd. behaviour (Q 10)	Environ. conditions (Q 11)	Irish culture (Q 12)
Cronbachs α	0,839	0,903	0,844	0,776	0,876	0,945	0,828	0,899

Table 10: Reliability analysis (own calculation, based on the quantitative data App. 3).

This calculation was also done for question 16. The value of Cronbachs Alpha for this question stands at 0,750. This can still be seen as an acceptable value. All SPSS outputs of the reliability analysis can be seen in Appendix 3.

Doing a factor analysis first to get an impression about the dimensional structure of the data and afterwards doing a reliability analysis (dimension analysis) for examining the one-dimensionality is a common practice before aggregating variables (FROMM 2008a: 316).

Aggregating variables

The aggregating of variables serves the purpose to combine the single subquestions (items) to one overall value in questions 4 to 12 and 16. This is done by taking the mean value of the items´ answers (subquestions). Especially for question 6 and 7 this is an important step since both are considered as one combined variable with a single value after this aggregation process.

This process follows an approach showing how many items should have a valid value in order to use these values for the overall calculation. For example, question 8 has 4 subquestions. At least 2 of these subquestions must be answered in order to be included in the overall value (see Table 11 column 3) of the new variable (BUDISCHEWSKI & KRIENS 2015: 46). Participants who did not answer a certain amount of questions are filtered out through this process. Therefore,

they are not part of the newly developed variable. From now on the new variables can be seen in the data file of SPSS. The new variables of questions 4 to 12 are named as follows: Satisfaction_labour_market, Satisfaction_consumeroffer etc. (in subsequent tables called 'Sat. labour market', 'Sat. consumer offer' etc.) The newly aggregated variable for question 16 refers to as touristic_impacts from now on.

Number of Items	1 – 2	**3 – 4**	5 – 6	7 – 8	9 – 10
Minimum number of items, over which a mean value should be calculated	1	**2**	3	4	5

Table 11: Aggregating heuristic (own illustration; Source: BUDISCHEWSKI & KRIENS 2015: 46).

Another step, which is done before the actual analysis, is the testing whether the input data is normally distributed. A common used normality test is the Kolmogorov-Smirnov-Test (BUDISCHEWSKI & KRIENS 2015: 136). As the value of the asymptotic significance is smaller than 0,05 for every single 'Satisfaction variable' it is concluded that the data is not normally distributed. This determines the tests which are used in the following analysis (DÖRING & BORTZ 2016: 105). Also, the newly aggregated variable of question 16 (touristic_impacts) is not normally distributed since it has an asymptotic significance of 0,01 (see Appendix 4).

The above described steps are frequently used in the subsequent analysis but are not presented in detail again.

8.2 Verification of the assumptions

In the following chapters the verification of the assumptions is demonstrated. For this reason, the assumptions derived in chapter 5.1 are shortly repeated. Moreover, the questions of the survey needed for the analysis of the respective assumption are outlined. This ensures transparency in the procedure of the analysis. Furthermore, the statistical tests which are used are mentioned and the results are demonstrated graphically. After this, an interpretation of every single assumption is made directly after the verification.

8.2.1 Assumption 1: Perceived tourism impacts on the place of living

Assumption 1 states that the residents of Dublin living further away from the main attraction points are more satisfied with the dimensions of the quality of life impacted by tourism than people living closer to the touristic areas (see chapter 5.1). For that reason, the area of living of the participants as well as the satisfaction variables are of interest here. Even if the data for the examination of this assumption is not normally distributed, a t-test for independent samples can be conducted (see Appendix 5). It is used in order to test whether the mean values of two groups statistically differentiate from each other (BUDISCHEWSKI & KRIENS 2015: 89).

In the first step, the different districts of living of the participants were divided and subordinated in three groups: non-touristic-area, less touristic area and very touristic area (see chapter 3.3). To get a stricter division the people living in a 'less touristic area' were not considered in this analysis. Only people living in a 'non-touristic' area or a 'very touristic' area are used to examine the differences in their perception towards the satisfaction with the quality of life. However, these two groups are not composed of the same number of people. Many more people living in a non-touristic district participated in the survey. For that reason, a parallelization process was conducted first (DÖRING & BORTZ 2016: 737). That means that people with comparable demographics (gender & age) of touristic areas were assigned to people with equal demographics of a non-touristic area. Therefore, a better comparison between the groups with the same sizes is possible. The same group sizes are a basic requirement to conduct a t-test (DÖRING & BORTZ 2016: 843). After that the mean value was calculated and the t-test was conducted (see Table 12). The newly aggregated satisfaction variables (see chapter 8.1.2) serve as the grouping variables in this test. In column 4 the two-sided significance can be seen. Apart from the variable 'Sat. consumer offer', all values are over 0,05. Values over 0,05 represent a non-significant result (BUDISCHEWSKI & KRIENS 2015: 92). That means that the satisfaction with the dimensions of the quality of life does not significantly differentiate between the two groups (people living in non-touristic areas & people living in very touristic areas). It was assumed that the people living in a very touristic area are less satisfied than people living in a non-touristic area. However, the results indicate that this assumption needs to be rejected.

Moreover, the calculation of the mean values shows relatively high values (see Table 12 column 7). The answer options included 1 = very dissatisfied, 2 = rather dissatisfied, 3 = rather satisfied and 4 = very satisfied. The high results in the mean value furthermore show that most of the people are rather satisfied in every dimension, regardless of their area of living. Only the variable 'Sat. costs of living' had a relatively low value in both areas (1,3676 & 1,4359). In the survey this dimension was asked through subquestions referring to the satisfaction with the overall satisfaction with the costs of living, the rental prices, the property prices and prices for daily needs. This shows once more that the dissatisfaction within this dimension does not relate to the area of living since there is no significant difference between the two groups.

Variable	T	df	Sig. (2-sided)		parallel Variable Touristic district	Mean
Sat. labour market	-,247	68	,805		parallel non-touristic	3,0354
					parallel very touristic	3,0721
Sat. publ. transport infrastructure	,136	71	,892		parallel non-touristic	2,1471
					parallel very touristic	2,1197
Sat. leisure infrastructure & consumer offer	1,98	71	,052		parallel non-touristic	3,0811
					parallel very touristic	2,8159
Sat. costs of living	-,605	71	,547		parallel non-touristic	1,3676
					parallel very touristic	1,4359
Sat. social environment	,215	71	,83		parallel non-touristic	3,1471
					parallel very touristic	3,1111
Sat. handling delinquent behaviour	,963	59	,34		parallel non-touristic	2,3021
					parallel very touristic	2,1121
Sat. environmental conditions	-,248	70	,805		parallel non-touristic	2,3113
					parallel very touristic	2,3465
Sat. Irish culture	,676	67	,501		parallel non-touristic	3,2892
					parallel very touristic	3,2095
Sat. Overall	,419	69	,676		parallel non-touristic	2,7941
					parallel very touristic	2,7297

Table 12: Results t-test (own calculation, based on the quantitative data App. 5).

Interpretation

The fact that noticeably fewer people of the 'touristic area' participated in the survey may be caused by the reason that these districts rather represent business areas than living areas. Especially Dublin 2 (very touristic area) is famous for its shopping streets and a great gastronomic offer. However, through the parallelization process it was tried to generate comparability between the two areas. In this way it was tried not to influence the results with the uneven distribution within the groups. Regardless, the results lead to the rejection of the assumption. No difference in the satisfaction with the different dimensions between the two groups is recognized.

It needs to be highlighted here that even when people living in the same districts, it is possible to be exposed to different external factors. The reason for that is that the districts extend for several square kilometres, and thus the conditions may vary within a single district as well. Therefore, for example, many people may have of a bus connection in their direct proximity which generates high satisfaction with the public transport infrastructure, independent of the place of living within the district. At the same time, another person can be highly dissatisfied with this dimension but maybe in return is very satisfied with the offer of leisure infrastructure in the district. This could be one possible explanation for the relatively balanced results.

Another reason for rejecting the assumption can be that the researched areas of very touristic areas (Dublin 2 & Dublin 8) have always been points of interest. Even if the sharp increase in the tourist numbers only started three years ago, Dublin has recorded growth for several decades. People living in that area may already be used to the touristic atmosphere since there were tourists already before the rapid growth. The sharp increase in the last three years was not from one day to the next, so the people may already have been accustomed to the new conditions without notice.

Moreover, these findings coincide with the results of the study on overcrowding risk carried out by McKinsey & Company and the Wttc (2017). According to this study Dublin has a relatively low risk of overcrowding in the section of 'attraction concentration' (McKinsey&Company & Wttc 2017: 54). This strongly reflects the results of the present investigation.

8.2.2 Assumption 2: Perceived tourism impacts and the duration of residence

Assumption 2 states that the people who have been living in Dublin for more than three years see the adjustments of the perceived impacts on the quality of life differently than those people who have been living there for less than three years (see chapter 5.1). Therefore, the length of living in Dublin as well as the answers to question 16 are of interest here. Through the condition question 15 all the people who did not realize the rising tourist numbers were automatically filtered out by the software LimeSurvey.

In order to examine the assumption a t-test was conducted once again (see Appendix 6). For that reason, a new variable was created. People who have been living in Dublin for 'less than 1 year' and between '1 – 3 years' were summarized under the name '0 – 3 years' and numerically coded as '1' in SPSS. People stating that they have been living in Dublin for '4 – 10 years' and 'more than 10 years', were summarized under the name 'more than three years' and numerically coded as '2'. The newly aggregated variable out of the answers of question 16 (touristic_impacts) serves as the grouping variable in this test (see chapter 8.1.2). In the t-test a 2-sided significance of 0,043 was calculated (T = 2,038; df = 151) (see Appendix 6). This indicates that there is no significant difference in the perception of the adjustments due to tourism between the two groups (0 – 3 years & more than 3 years). For that reason, assumption 2 must be rejected.

Furthermore, the mean value of the subquestions of question 16 were calculated (see Table 13). This was done to get an opinion about how the adjustments are perceived since Dublin has seen

rising tourist numbers. The answer options included 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = rather disagree, 3 = rather agree and 4 = strongly agree. In column 4, the mean value of people living in Dublin for '0 – 3 years' does not extremely differentiate from the mean values of people living in Dublin for 'more than 3 years'. This once more confirms the rejection of assumption 2.

In addition, Table 13 shows that the participants on average rather agree with the formulated sentences. A discrepancy can only be seen in the results of the sentence 'I perceive lesser costs of living in Dublin'. However, this is because this sentence was recoded at the beginning of the analysis (see chapter 8.1). It can therefore be concluded that the costs of living did not decline over the last years. The other mean values show that the participants rather agree with the sentences. Since these sentences were directly formulated with a reference to tourism, a rather positive development through the rising tourist numbers can be seen. Especially the higher supply of jobs and the higher consumer offer need to be mentioned in this regard. Apparently, in these fields a higher offer is perceived since the tourist numbers in Dublin increased.

Since Dublin has seen rising tourist numbers,	**Years of living**	**N**	**Mean**
… I perceive a higher supply of jobs in Dublin.	0 - 3 years	62	2,89
	more than 3 years	76	2,88
… I perceive a higher supply of public transport in Dublin.	0 - 3 years	71	2,42
	more than 3 years	86	2,24
… I perceive a higher offer of leisure opportunities in Dublin.	0 - 3 years	68	2,71
	more than 3 years	82	2,60
… I perceive a higher consumer offer in Dublin.	0 - 3 years	65	2,88
	more than 3 years	84	2,80
… I perceive lesser costs of living in Dublin.	0 - 3 years	72	1,31
	more than 3 years	87	1,45
… I perceive a more open interaction of the population in Dublin.	0 - 3 years	63	2,83
	more than 3 years	80	2,68
… I perceive a stronger punishment of delinquent behaviour in Dublin.	0 - 3 years	55	2,07
	more than 3 years	77	1,79
… I perceive better environmental conditions in Dublin.	0 - 3 years	61	2,20
	more than 3 years	83	1,98
… I perceive a higher supply of cultural and traditional events in Dublin.	0 - 3 years	67	2,99
	more than 3 years	86	2,79

Table 13: Adjustments since rising tourist numbers (own calculation, based on the quantitative data App. 7).

Interpretation

The analysis indicated that the perception towards the adjustments through the rising tourist numbers does not differentiate between the two groups. The assumption that the people living in Dublin for more than 3 years perceive the changes more consciously could not be verified.

Based on these results, it can be concluded that the influence on the daily life was not high enough to make people, living more than three years in Dublin, notice a significant change. Once more, this can be explained by the fact that the rise of the tourist numbers was rather a continual process than a rapid increase.

Another key finding is that the participants rather agreed with the positive formulated sentences of question 16. The high mean values indicate that most of the people experience adjustments in the single dimensions (regardless of the length of living) such as a more open interaction of the population or the higher supply of cultural events in Dublin. For that reason, it can be concluded that the rise of tourist numbers is positively regarded in the minds of the participants. Especially as the local population plays an important role in the tourism products of Ireland these results stand for a reasonable tourism development of Dublin. No negative impact on social or cultural aspects on the life of the local population could be identified until now.

8.2.3 Assumption 3: Perceived tourism impacts by tourism related residents

Assumption 3 states that those residents of Dublin who are working in the tourism industry or tourism-related sectors perceive stronger impacts of tourism than people not involved in tourism related jobs (cee chapter 5.1). For that reason, question 21 is of particular interest here. This question asks whether the participants are currently working in tourism or a tourism related sector, whether they used to work in this field or whether they have never worked in tourism. Furthermore, the variable 'touristic_impacts' (see chapter 8.1.2) is of interest in this regard.

Out of the answers of question 21, a new variable was created. People who used to work in tourism and are currently working in tourism are aggregated in the group 'experience' and numerically coded as '1'. In contrast, people who have never worked in tourism are as attributed the numerical code '2'. As these two groups do not have the same size, again a parallelization process was conducted. After that a t-test was carried out (T = 1,808; df = 117; Sig. (2-sided) = ,073) (see Appendix 8). However, it must be noted that assumption 3 is a directional assumption. This implies that before the test it was set in which direction the assumption tends to go. In this case that means that people with work experience in tourism perceive stronger impacts than others. In terms of the results of the t-test this means that the value of the two-sided significance can be divided by two (DÖRING & BORTZ 2016: 667):

0,073 : 2 = 0,0365

The value for the perception of the stronger impacts is 0,0365, and thus is significant since it ranges below 0,05. For that reason, assumption 3 can be verified. It has been proved that people

who are working in tourism or used to work in tourism perceive bigger tourism impacts since Dublin has seen rising tourist numbers.

Moreover, the calculation of the mean results in a value of 2,4335 for those people with work experience in the tourism sector, and a value of 2,2883 for those without experience in the tourism sector. That indicates that the impacts on the quality of life are rather perceived positively by the people who are involved in tourism since Dublin has seen rising tourist numbers.

Furthermore, a calculation of the mean values was carried out for the general satisfaction variables of the two groups (experience & no experience) (see Table 14). In these variables the direct impact of tourism is not included. Therefore, it is not necessary to interpret the assumption. However, as it is stated in the literature that people working in tourism report a higher quality of life (see chapter 4.2.4), this can be of interest as well. In column four almost all mean values of the people working in tourism (experience) are higher than the mean values of people with no experience in the tourism sector. Only the satisfaction variable concerning the environmental conditions shows converse values.

Variable	**parallel Variable work experience**	**N**	**Mean**
Sat. labour market	experience	71	3,1009
	no experience	63	3,0265
Sat. publ. transport infrastructure	experience	73	2,2100
	no experience	72	2,1944
Sat. leisure infrastructure & consumer offer	experience	73	3,0315
	no experience	72	2,8832
Sat. costs of living	experience	73	1,4281
	no experience	72	1,3600
Sat. social environment	experience	72	3,1944
	no experience	72	3,0972
Sat. handling delinquent behaviour	experience	64	2,2161
	no experience	64	2,1367
Sat. environmental conditions	experience	73	2,3025
	no experience	71	2,3697
Sat. Irish culture	experience	73	3,3231
	no experience	68	3,3056
Sat. Overall	experience	73	2,7945
	no experience	70	2,5857

Table 14: Satisfaction Quality of Life by work experience in tourism (own calculation, based on the quantitative data App. 9).

Interpretation

The t-test significantly shows that the impacts of tourism are stronger perceived by people who have experience in the tourism sector. People who did not realize the increase of tourist numbers at all again were filtered out for this assumption. This assures an undistorted result for this assumption. Moreover, it was found out that people working in tourism have a more positive attitude towards tourism. For that reasons, the assumption derived earlier can be verified. Due to the insights of the literature and the results of this study these findings may be explained by the group´s economic dependence on this sector. Moreover, people working in tourism may have a better understanding of how tourism contributes to daily life but also to the overall economic situation of the country. Furthermore, people working in tourism are rather familiar with the current touristic development than people not involved in tourism. It therefore can be assumed that this enhances the positive attitude towards tourism even more.

In addition, it was found out that people working in tourism also report a higher satisfaction in the chosen dimensions. As these dimensions were derived from the literature, a direct reference to tourism and the quality of life is given even though in this case the dimensions cannot contribute to the overall verification of the assumption. However, for the higher level of satisfaction a possible explanation appears, which is that people working in the tourism sector are rather sensitized to tourism related factors. It can be assumed that changes or developments due to tourism are not necessarily perceived by people not working in this sector. And if so, these changes in the environment are unlikely to be traced back directly to the tourism sector by this group. In contrast, people working in tourism may see the direct link to tourism due to their knowledge of the sector or their more distinct perception.

8.2.4 Assumption 4: Contribution of economic factors in the perception of the overall satisfaction

Assumption 4 states that the dimensions which represent the economic factors in this study play a greater role in the perception of the overall satisfaction of the local population than social and environmental factors (see chapter 5.1). For that reason, the satisfaction variables are of interest again. This time, they are divided in three groups: socio-cultural factors, environmental factors and economic factors. Under these three categories the single satisfaction variables are subordinated. This is done due to the list of impacts provided in chapter 4.2.2. The variables ‘Sat. social environment’, ‘Sat. handling delinquent behaviour’ and ‘Sat. Irish culture’ represent the socio-cultural category from now on. The environmental dimension is represented by the variables ‘Sat. environmental conditions’. The category of the economic factors includes the

variables ‘Sat. labour market’, ‘Sat. publ. transport infrastructure’, ‘Sat. leisure infrastructure & consumer offer’ and ‘Sat. costs of living’.

For examining the assumption, a multiple regression analysis was conducted for every category. A regression analysis is carried out to analyse the connection between a dependent and an independent variable. Moreover, some models describe which predictors are important for the prediction of the assumption (BUDISCHEWSKI & KRIENS 2015: 105; DÖRING & BORTZ 2016: 626 – 627). In this study, every single satisfaction variable is seen as a predictor/ independent variable. The variable ‘Sat. Overall’ is used as the dependent variable in the regression analysis. For all categories, firstly an Enter regression (method) was used in order to include all predictor variables in the calculation at the same time (BUDISCHEWSKI & KRIENS 2015: 107). For the socio-cultural and the economic categories, the Stepwise regression (method) was used additionally. This means that the predictors are added to the regression analysis depending on how much variance they are explaining. The predictor with the strongest variance is the first one to be included in the analysis, followed by the second strongest etc. (FROMM 2008b: 345 ff.). Detailed explanations of the multiple regression analysis (Enter & Stepwise) and its interpretation can for example be found in publications of COHEN (1992), FROMM (2008b), BUDISCHEWSKI & KRIENS (2015) and DÖRING & BORTZ (2016). The detailed tables of the regression analyses including the Model Summaries and the respective ANOVAs can be seen in Appendix 10 – 12.

Enter regression socio-cultural category

The conduction of the Enter Regression calculated results so that model 1 can contribute to the prediction. This can be seen in the significant result (,000) in column 5 in Table 15. In combination with the value for changes in F (19,891) it can be assumed that the correlation of the variable did not arise by chance. The value ,499 (Table 15 column 2) represents the correlation between all the predictors (3 variables of the socio-cultural category) and the variable ‘Sat. Overall’. The R – Square value represents the most important value in this table. The value continually ranges between 0 and 1. In a perfect linear correlation, R – Square equals 1. In this study the R-Square shows the impact on the overall satisfaction (‘Sat. Overall’) with the quality of life. The value ,249 therefore reveals that the model can explain 25 % of the total variance. According to COHEN (1992), values for R – Square over ,1300 can be interpreted as medium strong effect sizes, and values over ,2600 as large effect sizes (COHEN 1992: 159). Therefore, in the present investigation the socio-cultural category at 25 % rather strongly

impacts the overall satisfaction. On this basis it can be concluded that 75 % of the overall satisfaction cannot be explained by the satisfaction with socio-cultural aspects.

Model	R	R - Square	Changes in F	Sig. Change in F
1	,499	,249	19,891	,000
Influence Variable: (Constant), Sat. social environment, Sat. handling delinquent behaviour and Sat. Irish culture Dependent variable: Sat. Overall				

Table 15: Summary Enter Regression socio-cultural category (own calculation, based on the quantitative data App. 10).

Which predictors are mostly relevant for this result can be seen in Table 16. Especially the values of Beta and the significance play an important role here. In general, it can be stated that the higher the value of Beta is, the more important the predictor is. Therefore, the satisfaction of the socio-cultural category can be rather traced back to the predictors 'Sat. social environment' and 'Sat. Irish culture' than to the predictor 'Sat. handling delinquent behaviour'. This can also be seen in the significance value of ,069 of the predictor 'Sat. handling delinquent behaviour'. This result shows that the predictor plays a minor role in the socio-cultural category.

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	,403	,319		1,263	,208
	Sat. social environment	,301	,085	,273	3,543	,001
	Sat. handling delinquent behaviour	,115	,063	,126	1,829	,069
	Satisfaction Irish culture	,340	,101	,246	3,359	,001
a. Dependent Variable: Sat. Overall						

Table 16: Coefficients Enter Regression socio-cultural category (own calculation, based on the quantitative data App. 10).

Stepwise regression socio-cultural category

In the Stepwise regression for the socio-cultural category three models are calculated. The predictors are listed according to their relevance, whereby in every model an additional variable is included. The summary of the Stepwise analysis shows that the models, according to their significance, can contribute to the prediction. Moreover, it reveals that the correlation of the variable did not arise by chance (see Table 17 column 4 & 5). However, by including the predictor 'Sat. handling delinquent behaviour' a non-significant result is calculated (,069). This does not imply that model 3 cannot contribute to the prediction. It just means that there will not be any significant changes if this predictor ('Sat. handling delinquent behaviour') would be excluded from the calculation. Through these single steps, the advantage of additionally using

a Stepwise regression analysis can be seen. The values of column 2 again depict the correlation coefficient. The predictor ‘Sat. social environment’ therefore correlates with a value of ,433 with the overall satisfaction. Especially the values of R-Square are of interest here. Model 1, which solely included the predictor ‘Sat. social environment’, has a value of ,188. That means that if the socio-cultural category had only been measured with this predictor, 18,8 % of the overall satisfaction could have been traced back to this model. Adding the predictor ‘Sat. Irish culture’ 23,5 % could have been explained (see Table 17 Model 2). Adding the predictor ‘Sat. handling delinquent behavior’, an even a higher result (24,9 %) could have been reached. However, this does not fundamentally differ from model 2.

Model	R	R - Square	Changes in F	Sig. Change in F
1	,433	,188	42,058	,000
2	,485	,235	11,192	,001
3	,499	,249	,347	,069
Influence Variable Model 1: (Constant), Sat. social environment Influence Variable Model 2: (Constant), Sat. social environment, Sat. Irish culture Influence Variable Model 3: (Constant), Influence Variable: Sat. social environment, Sat. Irish culture and Sat. handling delinquent behaviour Dependent Variable: Sat. Overall				

Table 17: Summary Stepwise Regression socio-cultural category (own calculation, based on the quantitative data, App. 10).

Table 18 summarizes the results of the coefficients of the socio-cultural category´s Stepwise Regression more detailed. The Beta value again underlines the importance of the predictor for the category. Model 1 only includes one variable. However, for all other models it is tested in what way the parameters would change if another variable was included.

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	1,215	,240		5,068	,000
	Sat. social environment	,478	,074	,433	6,485	,000
2	(Constant)	,495	,317		1,560	,120
	Sat. social environment	,350	,081	,317	4,302	,000
	Sat. Irish culture	,341	,102	,247	3,345	,001
3	(Constant)	,403	,319		1,263	,208
	Sat. social environment	,301	,085	,273	3,543	,001
	Sat. Irish culture	,340	,101	,246	3,359	,001
	Sat. handling delinquent behaviour	,115	,063	,126	1,829	,069
a. Dependent Variable: Sat. Overall						

Table 18: Coefficients Stepwise Regression socio-cultural category (own calculation, based on the quantitative data App. 10).

Enter regression environmental category

As the environmental category only includes one predictor variable, only an Enter regression analysis is conducted. As shown in Table 19, the calculated model can contribute to the prediction (see Table 19 column 4 & 5). It can therefore be concluded that the correlation of the variable did not arise by chance. The correlation between the environmental category and the overall satisfaction has a value of ,254. The R – Square has a relatively low value of ,065. Hence, it can be concluded that the environmental category explains only 6,5 % of the variance of the overall satisfaction. According to COHEN (1992: 159) a relatively small effect size is around ,0196. Therefore, the R-Square value of Model 1 can be classified between a small and a medium-strong effect size. The impact on the overall satisfaction with the quality of life at 6,5 % can be traced back to the environmental category. Since the value of Beta is only necessary to compare independent variables in a multiple regression analysis it is not specified here.

Model	R	R - Square	Changes in F	Sig. Change in F
1	,254	,065	14,449	,000
Influence Variable: (Constant), Sat. environmental conditions Dependent variable: Sat. Overall				

Table 19: Summary Enter Regression environmental category (own calculation, based on the quantitative data App. 11).

Enter regression economic category

The conduction of the Enter Regression for the economic category calculated results thatmodel 1 can contribute to the prediction. This can be confirmed by the significant result in F (,000) and the value for changes in F (22,461) (Table 20 column 4 & 5). Therefore, it can be assumed that the correlation of the variable did not arise by chance. The value of the correlation between all the predictors of the economic category and the overall satisfaction is ,566. In this regression analysis the value of the R – Square is ,320. Hence, it explains 32 % of the total variance. According to COHEN (1992: 159) this can be interpreted as a large effect size. In this case it shows that the impact on the overall satisfaction with the quality of life at 32 % can be traced back to economic category.

Model	R	R - Square	Changes in F	Sig. Change in F
1	,566	,320	22,461	,000
Influence Variable: (Constant), Sat. costs of living, Sat. labour market, Sat. publ. transport infrastructure, Sat. leisure infrastructure & consumer offer Dependent variable: Sat. Overall				

Table 20: Summary Enter Regression economic category (own calculation; based on the quantitative data App. 12).

Table 21 shows which of the predictors are mostly relevant for this result. The values of Beta demonstrate that the predictors 'Sat. leisure infrastructure & the consumer offer' as well as the 'Sat. labour market' play a major role here. However, also the predictors 'Sat. costs of living' and 'Sat. publ. transport infrastructure' are attributed an important role in the economic category. This can be seen in the significant results for these predictors (,014 & ,018). Therefore, it can be assumed that the satisfaction in the economic category can be traced back to all the four predictors.

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	,291	,267		1,091	,277
	Sat. labour market	,264	,072	,229	3,647	,000
	Sat. publ. transport infrastructure	,143	,060	,166	2,392	,018
	Sat. leisure infrastructure & consumer offer	,313	,085	,268	3,673	,000
	Sat. costs of living	,232	,093	,158	2,487	,014
a. Dependent Variable: Sat. Overall						

Table 21: Coefficients Enter Regression economic category (own calculation, based on the quantitative data, App. 12).

Stepwise regression economic category

In the Stepwise regression for the economic category four models are calculated. Due to their significance (see Table 22 column 5) the models can contribute to the prediction. Therefore, it is assumed that the correlation of the variables did not arise by chance. Since column 5 only shows significant values it is assumed that there would be significant changes if one predictor was excluded. The additionally used Stepwise regression analysis therefore shows the importance of every predictor in the economic category. Again, the values of column 2 display the correlation coefficient. The predictors of model 2, for example, correlates with a value of ,523 with the overall satisfaction. The values of the R-Square can be seen in column 3. Model 1, which solely includes the predictor 'Sat. leisure infrastructure & consumer offer', has a value of ,218. That means that if the economic category would have been solely measured with this predictor, only 21,8 % of the overall satisfaction could have been traced back to this model. According to COHEN (1992: 159) this would have been a medium strong effect size. However, by stepwise including all the other predictors the large effect size can be reached, up to 32 % in model 4.

Model	R	R - Square	Changes in F	Sig. Change in F
1	,467	,218	54,023	,000
2	,523	,273	14,758	,000
3	,547	,300	7,168	,008
4	,566	,320	5,724	,018

Influence Variable Model 1: (Constant), Sat. leisure infrastructure & consumer offer
Influence Variable Model 2: (Constant), Sat. leisure infrastructure & consumer offer, Sat. labour market
Influence Variable Model 3: (Constant), Sat. leisure infrastructure & consumer offer, Sat. labour market, Sat. costs of living,
Influence Variable Model 4: (Constant), Sat. leisure infrastructure & consumer offer, Sat. labour market, Sat. costs of living, Sat. publ. transport infrastructure,
Dependent variable: Sat. Overall

Table 22: Summary Stepwise Regression economic category (own calculation, based on the quantitative data, App. 12).

Table 23 summarizes the results of the coefficients of the economic category´s Stepwise Regression. The Beta value again shows how important the predictors are for the economic category. Model 1 only includes one variable. However, for all other models it is tested in what way the parameters would change if another variable was included. It appears that Model 4, including all predictors, achieves the best results.

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	1,059	,223		4,748	,000
	Sat. leisure infrastructure & consumer offer	,544	,074	,467	7,350	,000
2	(Constant)	,431	,270		1,593	,113
	Sat. leisure infrastructure & consumer offer	,462	,075	,397	6,193	,000
	Sat. labour market	,283	,074	,246	3,842	,000
3	(Constant)	,307	,270		1,136	,257
	Sat. leisure infrastructure & consumer offer	,409	,076	,350	5,365	,000
	Sat. labour market	,257	,073	,223	3,513	,001
	Sat. costs of living	,252	,094	,171	2,677	,008
4	(Constant)	,291	,267		1,091	,277
	Sat. leisure infrastructure & consumer offer	,313	,085	,268	3,673	,000
	Sat. labour market	,264	,072	,229	3,647	,000
	Sat. costs of living	,232	,093	,158	2,487	,014
	Sat. publ. transport infrastructure	,143	,060	,166	2,392	,018

a. Dependent Variable: Sat. Overall

Table 23: Coefficients Stepwise Regression economic category (own calculation, based on the quantitative data App. 12).

Interpretation

Assumption 4 stated that the dimensions, which represent the economic factors in this study, play a greater role in the perception of the overall satisfaction of the local population than social and environmental impacts. This assumption can be verified on the basis of the previously demonstrated results. This can be traced back to the fact that especially in this category the participants are personally affected by adjustments in the queried dimensions of the economic sector.

However, all categories play a role in the perception of the overall satisfaction with the quality of life. The economic category is of greatest importance and explains 32 % of the variance of the overall satisfaction. All chosen predictors were relevant for this result. It appears that these findings support the underlying assumptions on this topic in the literature.

The socio-cultural category explains 25 % of the variance. In this category it needs to be pointed out that the predictor 'Sat. handling delinquent behaviour' did not play a greater role for this result.

The environmental category with 6,5 % has the smallest share of the overall satisfaction with the quality of life. However, it needs to be mentioned here that the predictor included aspects which were adjusted to an urban area. The environmental predictor included aspects such as the cleanliness of the city, the level of noise in the city and the waste disposal in the city (see Appendix 1 question 11). Apparently, these aspects do not play an important role in comparison to the other categories. However, it would have been possible that different results would have been achieved if the environmental category had included aspects linked to influences on natural resources.

8.3 Further results and Overall Interpretation

Apart from questions which help to examine the assumptions, the questionnaire achieved further outcomes. For that reason, in the following two chapters the additional results are outlined. In addition, the overall interpretation of all results is made in this chapter. Moreover, some findings are supported by the answers of the qualitative question 18 (see Appendix 1). In conclusion of this chapter the research question is answered.

8.3.1 Interpretation of additional data

In question 17 (see Appendix 1) the participants were asked in which areas of life they would like to see improvements. Table 24 shows an arrangement of the most cited answers. Once again it can be seen that the living costs play a major role, followed by public transport

infrastructure and environmental conditions. Especially the latter aspect (environmental conditions) is of interest here. In the previous results this aspect was not rated as that important (see chapter 8.2.4). However, in this question the dimension was not subdivided as in the questionnaire (see Appendix 1 question 11). This may have resulted in a more general understanding of environmental conditions. Therefore, it can be concluded that there may be a need for action in this area.

Ranking 1:	**27,30 % Living Costs**	3,86 % Public transport infrastructure	3,86 % Punishment of delinquent behaviour	Others 64,98 %
Ranking 2:	**18,40 % Public transport infrastructure**	11,87 % Living Costs	5,34 % Punishment of delinquent behaviour	Others 64,39 %
Ranking 3:	**11,28 % Environmental conditions**	9,79 % Public transport infrastructure	7,12 % Punishment of delinquent behaviour	Others 71,81 %
Ranking 4:	8,01 % Environmental conditions	6,82 % Punishment of delinquent behaviour	6,53 % Consumer Offer	Others 78,64 %
Ranking 5:	7,12 % Leisure Opportunities	6,82 % Consumer Offer	6,23 % Social interaction of the population	Others 79,83 %

Table 24: Importance of different factors (own calculation, based on quantitative data).

In question 3 (see Appendix 1) the participants were asked to describe Dublin as a tourist destination. With the sliding tool in the online version (see Appendix 1) the participants had the chance to rate the city depending on their perception. Afterwards, an overall mean value of the answers was calculated. The results can be seen in the semantic differential in Figure 3. It shall serve as a general presentation of the image of Dublin as a tourist destination but not for answering the research question. However, some assumptions may be underpinned with the insights of this visualisation. What is most striking here is that apparently the city was often rated as dirty, expensive and noisy. However, in the previous results, only the cost factor already played a major role (see chapter 8.2.1). It can be concluded that the perception of the high costs can neither be traced back to the area of living (see Assumption 1) nor to the perception of Dublin as a living area or a tourist destination. The factor of the high living costs is always recognized regardless of different viewpoints. However, the other remarkable results of this semantic differential (dirty & noisy) did not play an important role before. The two aspects ‘dirty’ and ‘noisy’ therefore do not play a significant role in the perception of the overall satisfaction (see chapter 8.2.4) but are rated as negative regarding Dublin as a tourist

destination. Therefore, it may be concluded that in some aspects Dublin is differently perceived as a tourist destination than as the area of living. In the other term-pairs the participants rather decided for the positive afflicted term (see Figure 3). One aspect for example is the open mindedness of the local population. This was also a result in chapter 8.2.2. According to the calculation of the mean value in this chapter good results in the dimension 'open interaction of the population in Dublin' were achieved. Both results can be rated as very positive since these aspects play a great role in both Dublin as a tourist destination and Dublin as an area of living.

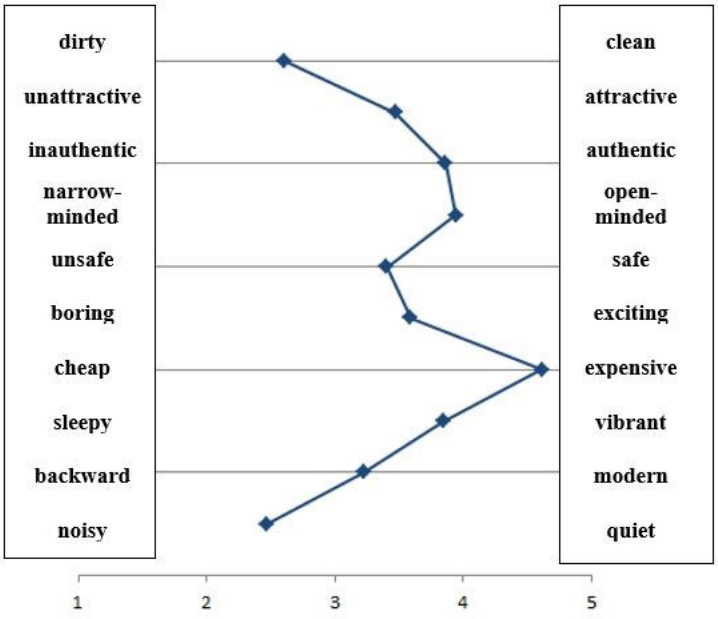

Figure 3: Semantic Differential (own illustration, based on quantitative data).

Another interesting aspect would have been the question whether some people are looking for direct contact with tourists as well. For instance, to learn other languages. However, this was partially asked through the open question 18 (see Appendix 1) and could be verified.

8.3.2 Overall Interpretation

The dimensions which represent the quality of life in this study are rated as good by all participants. It does not make a difference where the participants live in Dublin (see chapter 8.2.1). Moreover, no difference is seen in the perception of the adjustments due to tourism by people having lived in Dublin for a longer time (see chapter 8.2.2). These findings are not in accordance with the derived hypothesis. However, since these assumptions maintained position in many previous studies it only can be said that in the case of Dublin these assumptions cannot be verified. The basic assumption from the theory shall therefore not be rejected and changed due to these findings concerning Dublin. However, it must be mentioned again that measuring the quality of life in this way always refers to subjective perceptions. Therefore, it would have

been possible to achieve completely different results by asking the same questions to other persons. However, this is highly improbable in this case.

The study´s third assumption could be verified. People who are working in tourism rather perceive stronger impacts of tourism than people who have never been working in a tourism related sector. The basic assumptions of the Social Exchange Theory therefore can be supported once more. Moreover, also the impacts are rather rated positively by the people working in tourism. This is highly relevant for the work of tourism developers since a different understanding may often lead to a different decision. Touristic developments accompanied by clarification and transparency may often result in a better understanding and support of the local population. Also, Assumption 4, which can be directly linked to Assumption 3, was verified. General economic impacts are rated as important regarding the overall satisfaction. According to many authors (see chapter 4.1.4) it is easier to perceive a good quality of life when also the objective conditions are rated as good. Since the latter aspect was the underlying assumption of this survey the results are satisfactory in this regard. The circumstances in Dublin are therefore not only good according to statistic numbers but also according to the participants´ subjective opinion on the dimensions asked in this survey. The interplay between the subjective and objective dimension can therefore also be seen in this study (see chapter 4.1.4).

Looking back on the research question, "How are the increasing tourist numbers in Dublin influencing the quality of life of the local population" it can be said that no negative aspects in the quality of life, which can directly be traced back to the rising tourist numbers, are perceived. Solely the costs of living were rated negatively. However, the rising tourist numbers are not responsible for this in the first place. Circumstances such as the area of living and the length of living do not influence this perception in a negative way. It can even be said that the rising tourist numbers influence the quality of life of the local population in a positive way. For example, some participants even look for direct contact with tourist. This was found out by the answers of the open question 18 (see Appendix 1). Participant 62 for example stated:

"I regular try to chat to tourists when I'm out drinking/socialising to make them feel more welcome and if I overhear tourists that need directions/information regarding buses or pubs or understanding life in Ireland I will stop and try to help them" (see Appendix 13).

Another participant (263) wrote:

"I am working in the tourism industry myself, so I am trying to observe the behaviour and decisions of the tourist around as it's one of my interests" (see Appendix 13).

These examples underline that the perception towards tourism is very good. Until now the rising tourist numbers do not influence the residents´ quality of life in a negative way. From the background of the two examples just mentioned it can be even said that tourists contribute to an improvement in the social quality of life.

The author BELLEBAUM already stated in 1994 that the quality of life requires a form of society in which a free development of the personality and a protection against impairments is guaranteed (BELLEBAUM 1994: 239). Based on all the findings in this study, it can be said that regardless of the rising tourist numbers, until now this is the case in the city of Dublin. BELLEBAUM´s statement initially referred to the quality of life in general. But now it perfectly suits when talking about how far the touristic development of a destination should go, from a social point of view.

9 Critical Reflection

The research on the quality of life already started several decades ago. For that reason, it is challenging to review the whole theoretical basis of this topic. However, it was tried to outline those aspects of this field that appeared most relevant for this work´s purpose of research.

The question whether the quality of life should be measured or not and whether it is measurable at all is repeatedly asked (RUPPRECHT 1993: 8). However, in this study it could be legitimized since only a small aspect of the quality of life is researched here. No attempt is made to rate the quality of life of the people living in Dublin as good or bad. Solely the part of the quality of life which is influenced by tourism is considered and how this part is perceived. However, also the tourism system is very complex. It was tried to consider the most important aspects of tourism which show a connection with the quality of life. However, there is no claim of completeness in the context of this study. The list of the dimensions could have been extended. Due to reasons of applicability and time, only those dimensions which apparently play an important role in the present field of research were considered. Furthermore, the focus of this study lies on the subjective perception of the participants. Even if it is rather unlikely, it could have been possible to get different results. Especially a subjective approach on the quality of life is struggling to be fully acknowledged by academics. The reason for that is the lack of a theoretical basis (NOLL 2002: 159; BURNETT et al. 2016: 4). However, since the personal perception of the participants

was of interest here, it was yet decided for applying a subjective approach. This was supported by the decision to predefine the objective quality of life as 'good' in the beginning of the work. Another critical point of the survey is the part of the self-definition of the participants in combination with the chosen indicators. It would have been possible that the participants consistently answer the different dimensions positively (question 4 – 11). However, at the same time the participants could have rated the overall quality of life as bad. In the literature this is called 'satisfaction paradox' (ZAPF 1972: 365). For these reasons, it would have been insightful to let the participants speak by themselves and thus explore their point of view more in detail. Therefore, a qualitative part could have supported the study providing deeper insights in the topic. However, the quantitative survey seemed to be appropriate in the first step since it was possible to query a larger number of people living in Dublin and thus generate a broad picture of the residents´ perceptions and estimations.

The conduction of the survey itself can be rated as successful. However, an on-site survey might have provided additional information. The general questions on the quality of life correspond to former quality of life studies wherefore no bigger discrepancies occurred. The subjective perception of the quality of life automatically includes experiences of a longer time (RUPPRECHT 1993: 30). For that reason, questions 15 and 16 (see Appendix 1) aimed to include this aspect. Since these questions were consistently answered this implementation turned out to be successful. Also, the open question 18 (see Appendix 1) was frequently answered, which is not always the case for such questions. An aspect that could be criticized is that only a small proportion of the sample, that lives in very touristic districts, participated in the survey. However, it was tried to compensate this by applying a parallelization process.

During the phase of interpreting it was noticed that some additional questions could have been of interest as well. Although these questions would have not directly contributed to answering the research question, they could be aspects for further research.

For example, it would have been interesting to ask whether some participants must commute to work in the city centre. The result could have been that these people more often come into contact with tourists and therefore perceive bigger impacts than people who are working outside of the city centre. Besides, people usually do not just stay in their neighbourhood. For instance, for shopping many people must commute to the city centre. Therefore, it may be the case that in their own living environment no disruption by tourism occurs. However, in the daily life in the city centre the impacts of tourists may be perceived stronger by these people.

Furthermore, it would have been of interest what the participants think about future tourism development in Dublin. In particular, a possible question would have been whether it should be further encouraged or not. It may have arisen as a result that the current stage of tourism development is okay but an increasing number of tourists in the city would alienate the local population. This could have been supported by the theoretical background of DOXEY's and BUTLER's development models.

Another interesting aspect would have been which type of tourist impacts the quality of life. Whether it is more the sightseeing type of tourist, or the one who wants to experience the city as a local. Especially the latter aspect will be highly relevant in future tourism development. For that reason, this topic, among the other two mentioned aspects, provides an opportunity for further research both in the case of tourism development in general and tourism development in the city of Dublin.

10 Concluding Remark

Ireland and especially the capital Dublin has recorded rising tourist numbers for the last years. In many European cities the local population increasingly has the feeling that the quality of life is restricted due to tourism and its accompanying consequences. This gave rise for the interest in researching the current situation of the Irish capital Dublin in this regard. The investigation was supported by two theoretical strands, the Quality of Life Research and the Social Impact Research in tourism. Both theoretical approaches helped to provide an access to the topic and to limit the object of research.

The subjective perception of the queried dimensions of the quality of life was rated as good by most of the participants. With the underlying assumption that the objective conditions are good in Dublin, it can therefore be agreed with the assumption of many authors that good objective conditions support a better perception of the subjective component of the quality of life. Additional to these findings, the present investigation shows that in different areas of life the rising tourist numbers are noticed but until now a positive attitude towards tourism predominates. It makes no difference where the people live in Dublin. No greater differences between the perception of the impacts in a non-touristic district or a touristic district were identified. Moreover, it was found out that there is no difference in the perception of the adjustments due to tourism between participants who have been living in the city of Dublin for a longer time and the participants who have been living there just for a short period of time.

However, it was demonstrated that participants who are working in tourism or have worked in tourism rather perceive stronger impacts than people who have never been working in tourism or a tourism related sector. Especially people working in tourism recognise the importance of tourists coming to the city for the economy in Dublin. However, it has also been confirmed that the perception of economic factors plays an important part in the perception of the overall satisfaction with the quality of life for most of the participants.

Generally speaking, the quality of life is not negatively influenced by the rising tourist numbers from the residents´ point of view in Dublin. Therefore, it is important to sustain the positive attitude towards tourists since especially in Dublin the local population forms a significant part of the tourism product.

In a survey of Fáilte Ireland for example, the main motivation of the visitors choosing Ireland as a holiday destination were the friendliness and hospitality of the people (DTTAS 2015: 21). The exchange with the local population is therefore an important motivation for people to travel to that place. Moreover, in general tourists avoid places where they are not readily accepted. The positive perception of Dublin´s population towards tourists therefore needs to be sustained. The support of the local population can be a key element in the process of providing a tourist experience of high quality to visitors. In return, this will result in a positive word of mouth and make people visit the city of Dublin, and also the whole country of Ireland again. This can be used as a distinguishing advantage over other holiday destinations.

In other cities it can be seen how quickly the residents´ tolerance level regarding tourism activities can be reduced. For that reason, it is important to continuously repeat surveys which deal with the impacts made by tourists. The assessment of these impacts can be seen as an instrument by which the local population can maintain their traditional value system, local control and the quality of life. Moreover, looking at the perception of the local population is always a proper solution for improving the tourism development of a destination. In this way residents do not feel being ignored and become able to contribute to the local tourism development. In return, the tourism sector profits since tourists feel more welcome when the residents are contributing partners in the tourism development process of their own country.

Concluding, it can be said that it is crucial for tourism planners and policymakers to understand the impacts of tourism on the respective host community. In the future it will be challenging to find the right combination between varying tourism stakeholder goals and successfully match them with such type of tourism development supported by the local population. Investigations

like this study can contribute to identify problems in the society in an early stage and to take countermeasure before the residents´ attitude towards tourism shifts to the negative. In the case of Dublin this may include suggestions such as taking more environmental and social aspects into account in future tourism planning strategies. Decisions whether new source markets shall be attracted should be considered with great caution by precisely analysing the potential consequences of such decisions. Finally, a balance between economic advantages and sustainable tourism development needs to be achieved since these factors are characterized by a relationship of mutual dependence in the case of Dublin.

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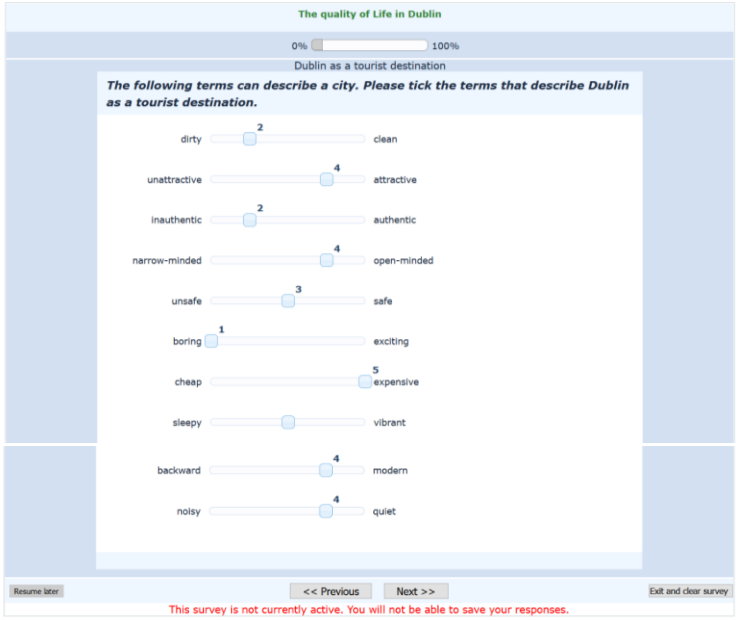
Appendix 1: Online questionnaire

Introduction

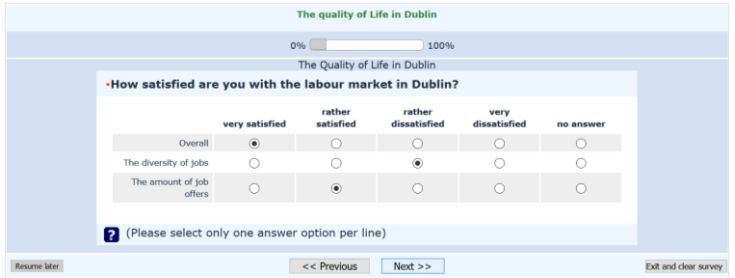
Question 1

Question 2

Question 3



Question 4



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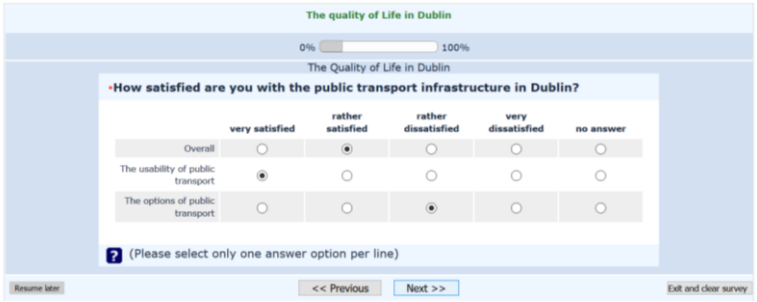

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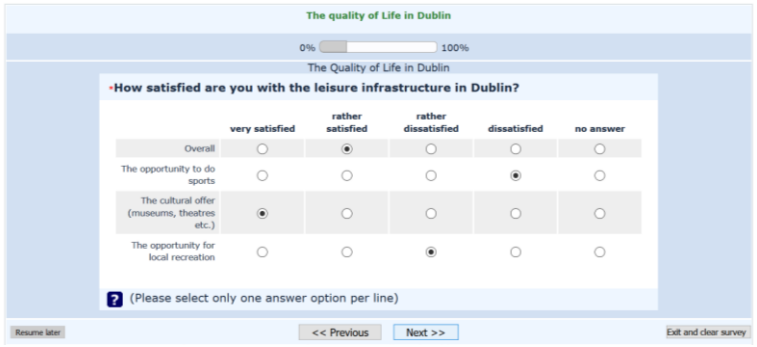
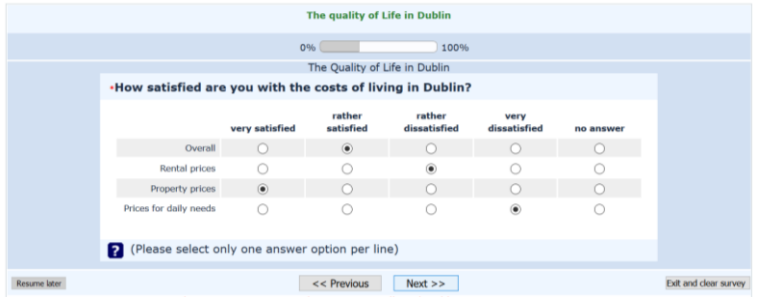


Question 7

Question 8



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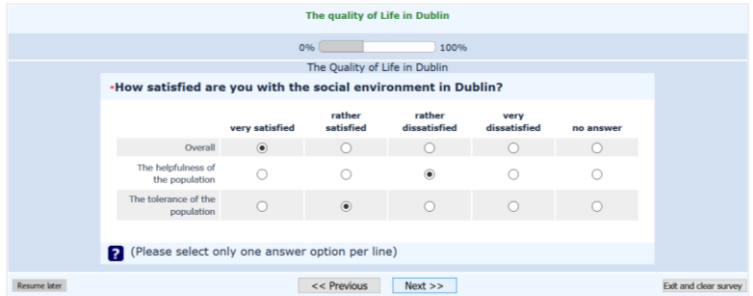

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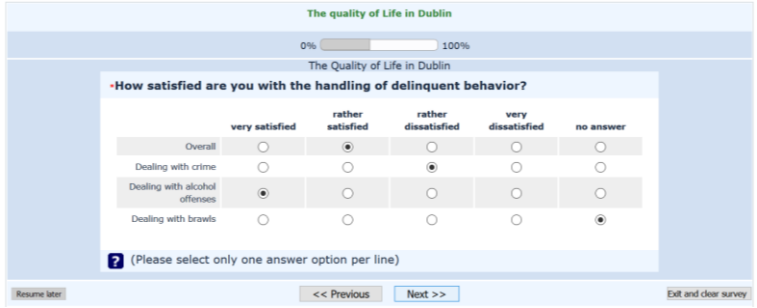

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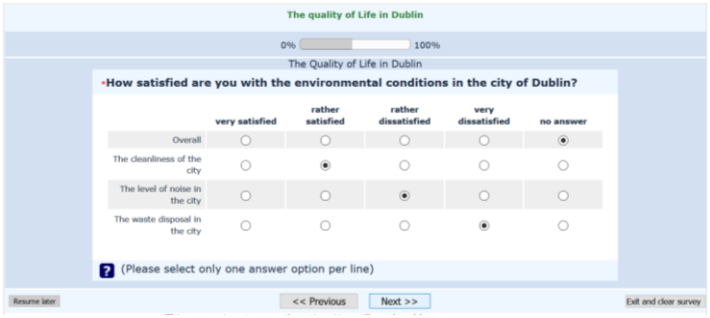

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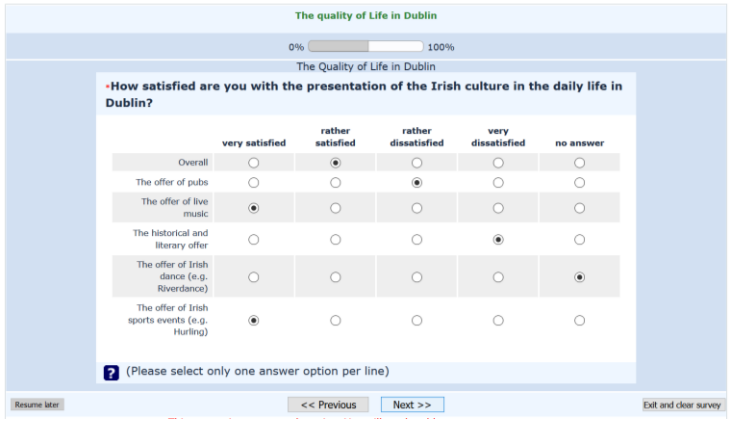

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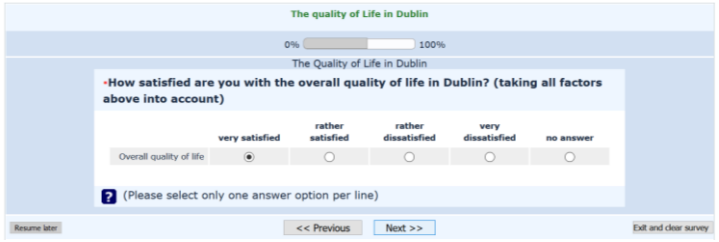
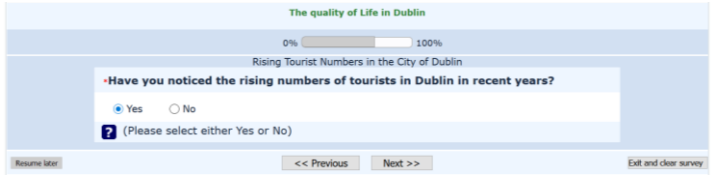


Question 14

Question 15



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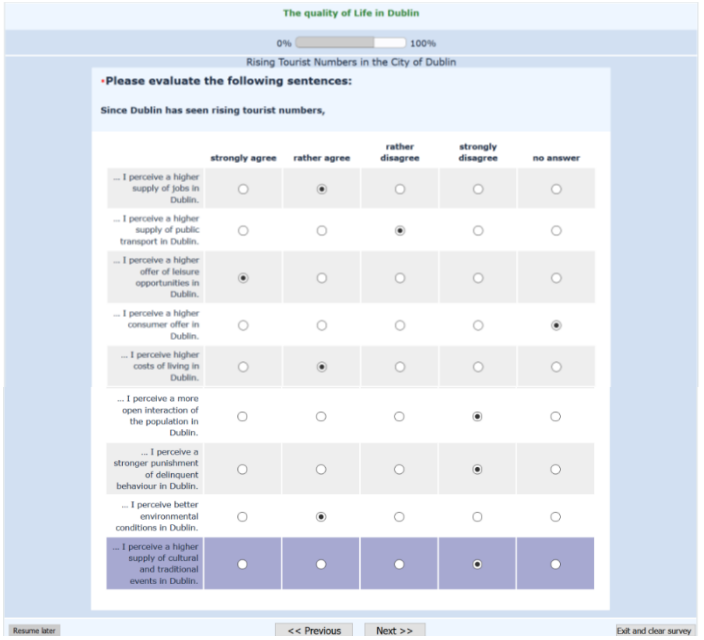

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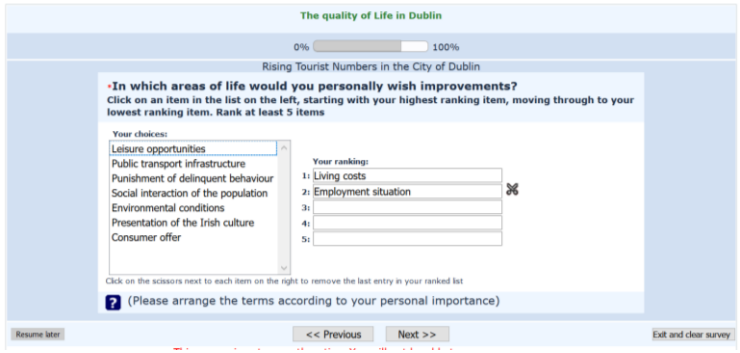

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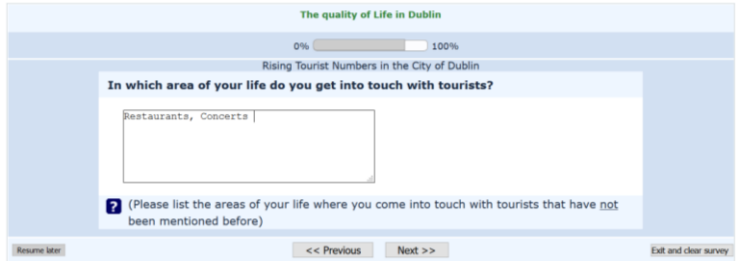

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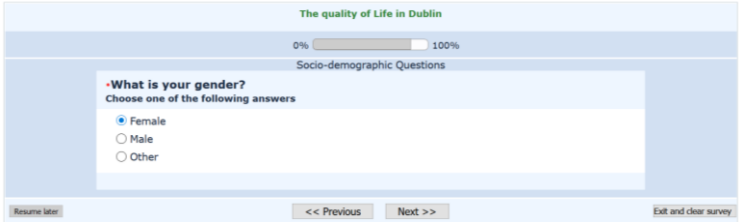
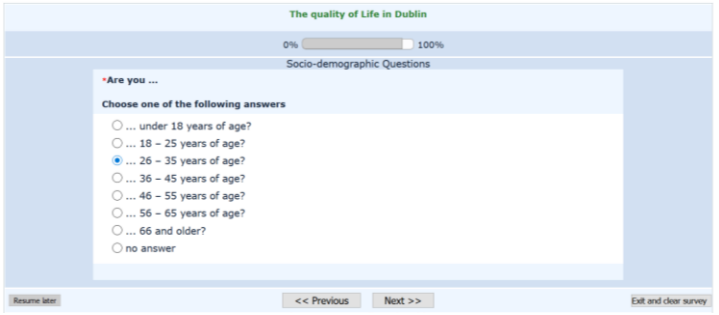


Question 20



Question 21

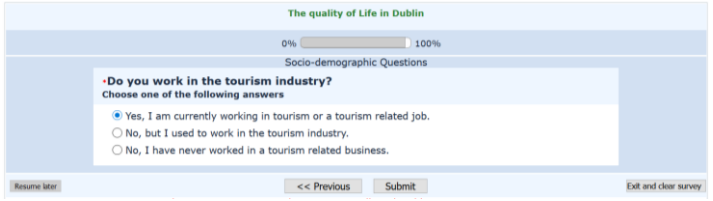


Table 25: Online questionnaire LimeSurvey

Appendix 2: Factor Analysis

Rotierte Faktorenmatrix[a]

	Faktor							
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Q4_SQ001 [Overall] How satisfied are you with the labour market in Dublin?	,299			,178			,725	,123
Q4_SQ002 [The diversity of jobs] How satisfied are you with the labour market in Dublin?	,143	,152			,126		,757	
Q4_SQ003 [The amount of job offers] How satisfied are you with the labour market in Dublin?	,297						,733	,141
Q5_SQ002 [The usability of public transport] How satisfied are you with the public transport infrastructure in Dublin?		,369	,122		,259	,722		
Q5_SQ003 [The options of public transport] How satisfied are you with the public transport infrastructure in Dublin?	,272	,334	,102	,100	,128	,683		
Q6_SQ002 [The opportunity to do sports] How satisfied are you with the leisure infrastructure in Dublin?	,510	,423	,153	,103		,231		,116
Q6_SQ003 [The cultural offer (museums, theatres etc.)] How satisfied are you with the leisure infrastructure in Dublin?	,428	,583	,123	-,110		,130		

Q6_SQ004 [The opportunity for local recreation] How satisfied are you with the leisure infrastructure in Dublin?	,438	,446				,234	,208	,152
Q7_SQ001 [Overall] How satisfied are you with the consumer offer in Dublin?	,248	,737	,107			,232	,172	,199
Q7_SQ002 [Shopping opportunities for daily needs] How satisfied are you with the consumer offer in Dublin?	,168	,751						,129
Q7_SQ003 [Gastronomic opportunities] How satisfied are you with the consumer offer in Dublin?	,245	,695	,102	,121				
Q7_SQ004 [Shopping opportunities (fashion etc.)] How satisfied are you with the consumer offer in Dublin?		,687	,142			,187		,127
Q8_SQ001 [Overall] How satisfied are you with the costs of living in Dublin?	,121	,158		,744	,162			
Q8_SQ002 [Rental prices] How satisfied are you with the costs of living in Dublin?			,114	,874		,123	,101	
Q8_SQ003 [Property prices] How satisfied are you with the costs of living in Dublin?			,156	,851	,118	,174	,143	,136
Q8_SQ004 [Prices for daily needs] How satisfied are you with the costs of living in Dublin?	,244	,151		,547	,135			
Q9_SQ001 [Overall] How satisfied are you with the social environment in Dublin?	,288	,215	,165				,223	,779

Q9_SQ002 [The helpfulness of the population] How satisfied are you with the social environment in Dublin?	,267	,239	,123	,102	,176			,714
Q5_SQ001 [Overall] How satisfied are you with the public transport infrastructure in Dublin?	,207	,222	,146		,136	,856		
Q6_SQ001 [Overall] How satisfied are you with the leisure infrastructure in Dublin?	,574	,482	,104			,232	,141	,141
Q9_SQ003 [The tolerance of the population] How satisfied are you with the social environment in Dublin?	,162	,153	,244		,138		,247	,703
Q10_SQ001 [Overall] How satisfied are you with the handling of delinquent behavior?		,162	,918	,121				,113
Q10_SQ002 [Dealing with crime] How satisfied are you with the handling of delinquent behavior?		,117	,902	,131	,104			,120
Q10_SQ003 [Dealing with alcohol offenses] How satisfied are you with the handling of delinquent behavior?	,183	,130	,749		,258	,149		,104
Q10_SQ004 [Dealing with brawls] How satisfied are you with the handling of delinquent behavior?		,143	,907		,141			,121
Q11_SQ001 [Overall] How satisfied are you with the environmental conditions in the city of Dublin?			,195	,195	,826			

Q11_SQ002 [The cleanliness of the city] How satisfied are you with the environmental conditions in the city of Dublin?			,229	,128	,748	,208	,107	
Q11_SQ003 [The level of noise in the city] How satisfied are you with the environmental conditions in the city of Dublin?				,121	,680			,235
Q11_SQ004 [The waste disposal in the city] How satisfied are you with the environmental conditions in the city of Dublin?					,746	,186		
Q12_SQ001 [Overall] How satisfied are you with the presentation of the Irish culture in the daily life in Dublin?	,744	,112		,105		,133	,209	,169
Q12_SQ002 [The offer of pubs] How satisfied are you with the presentation of the Irish culture in the daily life in Dublin?	,700						,228	
Q12_SQ003 [The offer of live music] How satisfied are you with the presentation of the Irish culture in the daily life in Dublin?	,665	,200		,144			,133	,153
Q12_SQ004 [The historical and literary offer] How satisfied are you with the presentation of the Irish culture in the daily life in Dublin?	,793	,336		,105				

Q12_SQ005 [The offer of Irish dance (e.g. Riverdance)] How satisfied are you with the presentation of the Irish culture in the daily life in Dublin?	,670	,178		,146	-,121		,155	,110
Q12_SQ006 [The offer of Irish sports events (e.g. Hurling)] How satisfied are you with the presentation of the Irish culture in the daily life in Dublin?	,732	,101					,140	
Q13_SQ001 [Overall quality of life] How satisfied are you with the overall quality of life in Dublin? (taking all factors above into account)	,292	,185	,142	,194	,131	,195	,381	,272

Extraktionsmethode: Hauptachsenfaktorenanalyse.

Rotationsmethode: Varimax mit Kaiser-Normalisierung.[a]

a. Die Rotation ist in 7 Iterationen konvergiert.

Table 26: Rotated Factor Matrix (output based on quantitative data).

Appendix 3: Reliability Analysis

Question 4:

Reliabilitätsstatistiken

Cronbachs Alpha	Cronbachs Alpha für standardisierte Items	Anzahl der Items
,839	,839	3

Question 5:

Reliabilitätsstatistiken

Cronbachs Alpha	Cronbachs Alpha für standardisierte Items	Anzahl der Items
,903	,904	3

Questions 6 & 7:

Reliabilitätsstatistiken

Cronbachs Alpha	Cronbachs Alpha für standardisierte Items	Anzahl der Items
,884	,886	8

Question 8:

Reliabilitätsstatistiken

Cronbachs Alpha	Cronbachs Alpha für standardisierte Items	Anzahl der Items
,776	,819	4

Question 9:

Reliabilitätsstatistiken

Cronbachs Alpha	Cronbachs Alpha für standardisierte Items	Anzahl der Items
,876	,877	3

Question 10:

Reliabilitätsstatistiken

Cronbachs Alpha	Cronbachs Alpha für standardisierte Items	Anzahl der Items
,945	,945	4

Question 11:

Reliabilitätsstatistiken

Cronbachs Alpha	Cronbachs Alpha für standardisierte Items	Anzahl der Items
,828	,830	4

Question 12:

Reliabilitätsstatistiken

Cronbachs Alpha	Cronbachs Alpha für standardisierte Items	Anzahl der Items
,899	,900	6

Table 27: Reliability analysis (output based on quantitative data).

Appendix 4: Kolmogorov-Smirnov Tests

		Satisfaction_labour_market	Satisfaction_publictransport_infrastructure	Satisfaction_leisureinfra_and_consumeroffer	Satisfaction_costsoflivin g	Satisfaction_social_environment	Satisfaction_handlingofdelinquentbehaviour	Satisfaction_environmentalconditions	Satisfaction_IrishCulture	Satisfaction_Overall
N		215	233	233	229	226	195	220	211	212
Parameter der Normalverteilung[a,b]	Mittelwert	3,0295	2,1588	2,9462	1,4421	3,1519	2,1385	2,3345	3,2964	2,6981
	Standardabweichung	,67009	,83049	,59329	,48354	,66465	,78675	,62440	,50902	,73077
Extremste Differenzen	Absolut	,217	,138	,077	,205	,197	,130	,131	,127	,330
	Positiv	,164	,138	,052	,205	,139	,121	,131	,127	,245
	Negativ	-,217	-,106	-,077	-,180	-,197	-,130	-,120	-,110	-,330
Statistik für Test		,217	,138	,077	,205	,197	,130	,131	,127	,330
Asymptotische Signifikanz (2-seitig)		,000[c]	,000[c]	,002[c]	,000[c]	,000[c]	,000[c]	,000[c]	,000[c]	,000[c]

a. Die zu testende Verteilung ist eine Normalverteilung.

b. Aus den Daten berechnet.

c. Signifikanzkorrektur nach Lilliefors.

Table 28: Kolmogorov Smirnov Test questions 4 - 12 (output based on quantitative data).

		touristic_impacts
N		153
Parameter der Normalverteilung[a,b]	Mittelwert	2,4029
	Standardabweichung	,45374
Extremste Differenzen	Absolut	,084
	Positiv	,084
	Negativ	-,084
Statistik für Test		,084
Asymptotische Signifikanz (2-seitig)		,010[c]

a. Die zu testende Verteilung ist eine Normalverteilung.

b. Aus den Daten berechnet.

c. Signifikanzkorrektur nach Lilliefors.

Table 29: Kolmogorov Smirnov Test question 16 (output based on quantitative data).

Appendix 5: t-test Assumption 1

Gruppenstatistiken

	Parallel	N	Mittelwert	Standardabweichung	Standardfehler des Mittelwertes
Satisfaction_labour_market	parallel non touristic	33	3,0354	,63705	,11090
	parallel very touristic	37	3,0721	,60418	,09933
Satisfaction_publictransport_infrastructure	parallel non touristic	34	2,1471	,85356	,14638
	parallel very touristic	39	2,1197	,86005	,13772
Satisfaction_leisureinfra_and_consumeroffer	parallel non touristic	34	3,0811	,55837	,09576
	parallel very touristic	39	2,8159	,58129	,09308
Satisfaction_costsofliving	parallel non touristic	34	1,3676	,56150	,09630
	parallel very touristic	39	1,4359	,39757	,06366
Satisfaction_social_environment	parallel non touristic	34	3,1471	,71629	,12284
	parallel very touristic	39	3,1111	,70642	,11312
Satisfaction_handlingofdelinquentbehaviour	parallel non touristic	32	2,3021	,76778	,13573
	parallel very touristic	29	2,1121	,77225	,14340
Satisfaction_environmentalconditions	parallel non touristic	34	2,3113	,61863	,10609
	parallel very touristic	38	2,3465	,58527	,09494
Satisfaction_IrishCulture	parallel non touristic	34	3,2892	,48287	,08281
	parallel very touristic	35	3,2095	,49595	,08383
Satisfaction_Overall	parallel non touristic	34	2,7941	,59183	,10150
	parallel very touristic	37	2,7297	,69317	,11396

Table 30: Group Statistics Assumption 1 (output based on quantitative data).

Test bei unabhängigen Stichproben

		Levene-Test der Varianzgleichheit		T-Test für die Mittelwertgleichheit						
									95% Konfidenzintervall der Differenz	
		F	Signifikanz	T	df	Sig. (2-seitig)	Mittlere Differenz	Standardfehler der Differenz	Untere	Obere
Satisfaction_labour_market	Varianzen sind gleich	,011	,916	-,247	68	,805	-,03672	,14842	-,33288	,25945
	Varianzen sind nicht gleich			-,247	66,115	,806	-,03672	,14887	-,33395	,26051
Satisfaction_publictransport_infrastructure	Varianzen sind gleich	,007	,936	,136	71	,892	,02740	,20109	-,37356	,42836
	Varianzen sind nicht gleich			,136	69,790	,892	,02740	,20098	-,37347	,42827
Satisfaction_leisure infra_and_consumeroffer	Varianzen sind gleich	,007	,933	1,980	71	,052	,26512	,13392	-,00190	,53215
	Varianzen sind nicht gleich			1,985	70,310	,051	,26512	,13354	-,00120	,53145
Satisfaction_costsofliving	Varianzen sind gleich	,424	,517	-,605	71	,547	-,06825	,11280	-,29318	,15668
	Varianzen sind nicht gleich			-,591	58,453	,557	-,06825	,11544	-,29929	,16279
Satisfaction_social_environment	Varianzen sind gleich	,062	,805	,215	71	,830	,03595	,16683	-,29670	,36860
	Varianzen sind nicht gleich			,215	69,374	,830	,03595	,16699	-,29716	,36905
Satisfaction_handlingofdelinquentbehaviour	Varianzen sind gleich	,030	,862	,963	59	,340	,19001	,19739	-,20497	,58499
	Varianzen sind nicht gleich			,962	58,345	,340	,19001	,19745	-,20517	,58520
Satisfaction_environmentalconditions	Varianzen sind gleich	,253	,617	-,248	70	,805	-,03522	,14193	-,31829	,24785
	Varianzen sind nicht gleich			-,247	68,078	,805	-,03522	,14237	-,31931	,24888
Satisfaction_IrishCulture	Varianzen sind gleich	,000	,999	,676	67	,501	,07969	,11788	-,15560	,31499
	Varianzen sind nicht gleich			,676	67,000	,501	,07969	,11784	-,15551	,31489
Satisfaction_Overall	Varianzen sind gleich	,695	,407	,419	69	,676	,06439	,15363	-,24210	,37088
	Varianzen sind nicht gleich			,422	68,646	,674	,06439	,15260	-,24008	,36885

Table 31: Test independent samples (output based on quantitative data).

Appendix 6: t-test Assumption 2

Gruppenstatistiken

	For how many years have you been living in Dublin?	N	Mittelwert	Standardabweichung	Standardfehler des Mittelwertes
touristic_impacts	0 - 3 years	67	2,4868	,40742	,04977
	more than 3 years	86	2,3376	,47897	,05165

Table 32: Groups statistics Assumption 2 (output based on quantitative data).

Test bei unabhängigen Stichproben

		Levene-Test der Varianzgleichheit		T-Test für die Mittelwertgleichheit						
									95% Konfidenzintervall der Differenz	
		F	Signifikanz	T	df	Sig. (2-seitig)	Mittlere Differenz	Standardfehler der Differenz	Untere	Obere
touristic_impacts	Varianzen sind gleich	2,572	,111	2,038	151	,043	,14916	,07318	,00457	,29375
	Varianzen sind nicht gleich			2,079	149,798	,039	,14916	,07173	,00743	,29089

Table 33: Test independent samples (output based on quantitative data).

Appendix 7: Mean Values Assumption 2

Gruppenstatistiken

Since Dublin has seen rising tourist numbers,…	For how many years have you been living in Dublin?	N	Mittelwert	Standardabweichung	Standardfehler des Mittelwertes
… I perceive a higher supply of jobs in Dublin.	0 - 3 years	62	2,89	,704	,089
	more than 3 years	76	2,88	,864	,099
… I perceive a higher supply of public transport in Dublin.	0 - 3 years	71	2,42	,856	,102
	more than 3 years	86	2,24	,894	,096
… I perceive a higher offer of leisure opportunities in Dublin.	0 - 3 years	68	2,71	,734	,089
	more than 3 years	82	2,60	,814	,090
… I perceive a higher consumer offer in Dublin.	0 - 3 years	65	2,88	,761	,094
	more than 3 years	84	2,80	,757	,083
… I perceive higher costs of living in Dublin.	0 - 3 years	72	1,31	,620	,073
	more than 3 years	87	1,45	,728	,078
… I perceive a more open interaction of the population in Dublin.	0 - 3 years	63	2,83	,853	,107
	more than 3 years	80	2,68	,725	,081
… I perceive a stronger punishment of delinquent behaviour in Dublin.	0 - 3 years	55	2,07	,790	,107
	more than 3 years	77	1,79	,784	,089
… I perceive better environmental conditions in Dublin.	0 - 3 years	61	2,20	,749	,096
	more than 3 years	83	1,98	,749	,082
… I perceive a higher supply of cultural and traditional events in Dublin.	0 - 3 years	67	2,99	,663	,081
	more than 3 years	86	2,79	,856	,092

Table 34: Mean values Assumption 2 (output based on quantitative data).

Appendix 8: t-test Assumption 3

Gruppenstatistiken

	Parallel_Workexperience	N	Mittelwert	Standardabweichung	Standardfehler des Mittelwertes
touristic_impacts	experience	58	2,4335	,44252	,05811
	no experience	61	2,2883	,43337	,05549

Table 35: Groups Statistics Assumption 3 (output based on quantitative data).

Test bei unabhängigen Stichproben

		Levene-Test der Varianzgleichheit		T-Test für die Mittelwertgleichheit						
									95% Konfidenzintervall der Differenz	
		F	Signifikanz	T	df	Sig. (2-seitig)	Mittlere Differenz	Standardfehler der Differenz	Untere	Obere
touristic_impacts	Varianzen sind gleich	,196	,659	1,808	117	,073	,14518	,08030	-,01385	,30421
	Varianzen sind nicht gleich			1,807	116,401	,073	,14518	,08034	-,01394	,30430

Table 36: Test independent samples (output based on quantitative data).

Appendix 9: Mean Values Assumption 3

Gruppenstatistiken

	Parallel_Workexperience	N	Mittelwert	Standardabweichung	Standardfehler des Mittelwertes
Satisfaction_labour_market	experience	71	3,1009	,60781	,07213
	no experience	63	3,0265	,64564	,08134
Satisfaction_publictransport_infrastructure	experience	73	2,2100	,82870	,09699
	no experience	72	2,1944	,81793	,09639
Satisfaction_leisureinfra_and_consumeroffer	experience	73	3,0315	,59439	,06957
	no experience	72	2,8832	,64243	,07571
Satisfaction_costsofliving	experience	73	1,4281	,48379	,05662
	no experience	72	1,3600	,33939	,04000
Satisfaction_social_environment	experience	72	3,1944	,72243	,08514
	no experience	72	3,0972	,62970	,07421
Satisfaction_handlingofdelinquentbehaviour	experience	64	2,2161	,79137	,09892
	no experience	64	2,1367	,78474	,09809
Satisfaction_environmentalconditions	experience	73	2,3025	,56203	,06578
	no experience	71	2,3697	,66871	,07936
Satisfaction_IrishCulture	experience	73	3,3231	,54133	,06336
	no experience	68	3,3056	,44217	,05362
Satisfaction_Overall	experience	73	2,7945	,74459	,08715
	no experience	70	2,5857	,75167	,08984

Table 37: Mean values Assumption 3 (output based on quantitative data).

Appendix 10: Regression Analysis Assumption 4 – socio-cultural category

Enter regression:

Modellzusammenfassung[b]

Modell	R	R-Quadrat	Korrigiertes R-Quadrat	Standardfehler des Schätzers	Statistikwerte ändern: Änderung in R-Quadrat	Änderung in F	df1	df2	Sig. Änderung in F	Durbin-Watson-Statistik
1	,499[a]	,249	,236	,62452	,249	19,891	3	180	,000	1,895

a. Einflußvariablen : (Konstante), Satisfaction_IrishCulture, Satisfaction_handlingofdelinquentbehaviour, Satisfaction_social_environment

b. Abhängige Variable: Satisfaction_Overall

Table 38: Model summary socio-cultural category (output based on quantitative data).

ANOVA[a]

Modell		Quadratsumme	df	Mittel der Quadrate	F	Sig.
1	Regression	23,274	3	7,758	19,891	,000[b]
	Nicht standardisierte Residuen	70,204	180	,390		
	Gesamt	93,478	183			

a. Abhängige Variable: Satisfaction_Overall

b. Einflußvariablen : (Konstante), Satisfaction_IrishCulture, Satisfaction_handlingofdelinquentbehaviour, Satisfaction_social_environment

Table 39: ANOVA socio-cultural category (output based on quantitative data).

Koeffizienten[a]

Modell		Nicht standardisierte Koeffizienten: Regressionskoeffizient B	Nicht standardisierte Koeffizienten: Standardfehler	Standardisierte Koeffizienten: Beta	T	Sig.	Kollinearitätsstatistik: Toleranz	Kollinearitätsstatistik: VIF
1	(Konstante)	,403	,319		1,263	,208		
	Satisfaction_social_environment	,301	,085	,273	3,543	,001	,702	1,424
	Satisfaction_handlingofdelinquentbehaviour	,115	,063	,126	1,829	,069	,877	1,140
	Satisfaction_IrishCulture	,340	,101	,246	3,359	,001	,778	1,285

a. Abhängige Variable: Satisfaction_Overall

Table 40: Coefficients socio-cultural category (output based on quantitative data).

Stepwise regression:

Modellzusammenfassung[d]

Modell	R	R-Quadrat	Korrigiertes R-Quadrat	Standardfehler des Schätzers	Statistikwerte ändern: Änderung in R-Quadrat	Änderung in F	df1	df2	Sig. Änderung in F	Durbin-Watson-Statistik
1	,433[a]	,188	,183	,64591	,188	42,058	1	182	,000	
2	,485[b]	,235	,227	,62855	,047	11,192	1	181	,001	
3	,499[c]	,249	,236	,62452	,014	3,347	1	180	,069	1,895

a. Einflußvariablen : (Konstante), Satisfaction_social_environment

b. Einflußvariablen : (Konstante), Satisfaction_social_environment, Satisfaction_IrishCulture

c. Einflußvariablen : (Konstante), Satisfaction_social_environment, Satisfaction_IrishCulture, Satisfaction_handlingofdelinquentbehaviour

d. Abhängige Variable: Satisfaction_Overall

Table 41: Model summary socio-cultural category (output based on quantitative data).

ANOVA[a]

Modell		Quadratsumme	df	Mittel der Quadrate	F	Sig.
1	Regression	17,547	1	17,547	42,058	,000[b]
	Nicht standardisierte Residuen	75,931	182	,417		
	Gesamt	93,478	183			
2	Regression	21,969	2	10,984	27,803	,000[c]
	Nicht standardisierte Residuen	71,510	181	,395		
	Gesamt	93,478	183			
3	Regression	23,274	3	7,758	19,891	,000[d]
	Nicht standardisierte Residuen	70,204	180	,390		
	Gesamt	93,478	183			

a. Abhängige Variable: Satisfaction_Overall

b. Einflußvariablen : (Konstante), Satisfaction_social_environment

c. Einflußvariablen : (Konstante), Satisfaction_social_environment, Satisfaction_IrishCulture

d. Einflußvariablen : (Konstante), Satisfaction_social_environment, Satisfaction_IrishCulture, Satisfaction_handlingofdelinquentbehaviour

Table 42: ANOVA socio-cultural category (output based on quantitative data).

Koeffizienten[a]

Modell		Nicht standardisierte Koeffizienten		Standardisierte Koeffizienten			Kollinearitätsstatistik	
		Regressionskoeffizient B	Standardfehler	Beta	T	Sig.	Toleranz	VIF
1	(Konstante)	1,215	,240		5,068	,000		
	Satisfaction_social_environment	,478	,074	,433	6,485	,000	1,000	1,000
2	(Konstante)	,495	,317		1,560	,120		
	Satisfaction_social_environment	,350	,081	,317	4,302	,000	,778	1,285
	Satisfaction_IrishCulture	,341	,102	,247	3,345	,001	,778	1,285
3	(Konstante)	,403	,319		1,263	,208		
	Satisfaction_social_environment	,301	,085	,273	3,543	,001	,702	1,424
	Satisfaction_IrishCulture	,340	,101	,246	3,359	,001	,778	1,285
	Satisfaction_handlingofdelinquentbehaviour	,115	,063	,126	1,829	,069	,877	1,140

a. Abhängige Variable: Satisfaction_Overall

Table 43: Coefficients socio-cultural category (output based on quantitative data).

Appendix 11: Regression Analysis Assumption 4 – environmental category

Enter regression:

Modellzusammenfassung[b]

Modell	R	R-Quadrat	Korrigiertes R-Quadrat	Standardfehler des Schätzers	Statistikwerte ändern: Änderung in R-Quadrat	Änderung in F	df1	df2	Sig. Änderung in F	Durbin-Watson-Statistik
1	,254[a]	,065	,060	,70093	,065	14,449	1	209	,000	1,969

a. Einflußvariablen : (Konstante), Satisfaction_environmentalconditions

b. Abhängige Variable: Satisfaction_Overall

Table 44: Model summary environmental category (output based on quantitative data).

ANOVA[a]

Modell		Quadratsumme	df	Mittel der Quadrate	F	Sig.
1	Regression	7,099	1	7,099	14,449	,000[b]
	Nicht standardisierte Residuen	102,683	209	,491		
	Gesamt	109,782	210			

a. Abhängige Variable: Satisfaction_Overall

b. Einflußvariablen : (Konstante), Satisfaction_environmentalconditions

Table 45: ANOVA environmental category (output based on quantitative data).

Koeffizienten[a]

Modell		Nicht standardisierte Koeffizienten: Regressionskoeffizient B	Nicht standardisierte Koeffizienten: Standardfehler	Standardisierte Koeffizienten: Beta	T	Sig.	Kollinearitätsstatistik: Toleranz	Kollinearitätsstatistik: VIF
1	(Konstante)	2,019	,187		10,785	,000		
	Satisfaction_environmentalconditions	,294	,077	,254	3,801	,000	1,000	1,000

a. Abhängige Variable: Satisfaction_Overall

Table 46: Coefficients environmental category (output based on quantitative data).

Appendix 12: Regression Analysis Assumption 4 – economic category

Enter regression:

Modellzusammenfassung[b]

Modell	R	R-Quadrat	Korrigiertes R-Quadrat	Standardfehler des Schätzers	Statistikwerte ändern: Änderung in R-Quadrat	Änderung in F	df1	df2	Sig. Änderung in F	Durbin-Watson-Statistik
1	,566[a]	,320	,306	,59605	,320	22,461	4	191	,000	2,026

a. Einflußvariablen : (Konstante), Satisfaction_costsofliving, Satisfaction_labour_market, Satisfaction_publictransport_infrastructure, Satisfaction_leisureinfra_and_consumeroffer

b. Abhängige Variable: Satisfaction_Overall

Table 47: Model summary economic category (output based on quantitative data).

ANOVA[a]

Modell		Quadratsumme	df	Mittel der Quadrate	F	Sig.
1	Regression	31,919	4	7,980	22,461	,000[b]
	Nicht standardisierte Residuen	67,857	191	,355		
	Gesamt	99,776	195			

a. Abhängige Variable: Satisfaction_Overall

b. Einflußvariablen : (Konstante), Satisfaction_costsofliving, Satisfaction_labour_market, Satisfaction_publictransport_infrastructure, Satisfaction_leisureinfra_and_consumeroffer

Table 48: ANOVA economic category (output based on quantitative data).

Koeffizienten[a]

Modell		Nicht standardisierte Koeffizienten: Regressionskoeffizient B	Nicht standardisierte Koeffizienten: Standardfehler	Standardisierte Koeffizienten: Beta	T	Sig.	Kollinearitätsstatistik: Toleranz	Kollinearitätsstatistik: VIF
1	(Konstante)	,291	,267		1,091	,277		
	Satisfaction_labour_market	,264	,072	,229	3,647	,000	,901	1,110
	Satisfaction_publictransport_infrastructure	,143	,060	,166	2,392	,018	,736	1,359
	Satisfaction_leisureinfra_and_consumeroffer	,313	,085	,268	3,673	,000	,667	1,500
	Satisfaction_costsofliving	,232	,093	,158	2,487	,014	,883	1,132

a. Abhängige Variable: Satisfaction_Overall

Table 49: Coefficients economic category (output based on quantitative data).

Stepwise regression:

Modellzusammenfassung[e]

Modell	R	R-Quadrat	Korrigiertes R-Quadrat	Standardfehler des Schätzers	Statistikwerte ändern: Änderung in R-Quadrat	Änderung in F	df1	df2	Sig. Änderung in F	Durbin-Watson-Statistik
1	,467[a]	,218	,214	,63426	,218	54,023	1	194	,000	
2	,523[b]	,273	,266	,61290	,056	14,758	1	193	,000	
3	,547[c]	,300	,289	,60333	,026	7,168	1	192	,008	
4	,566[d]	,320	,306	,59605	,020	5,724	1	191	,018	2,026

a. Einflußvariablen : (Konstante), Satisfaction_leisureinfra_and_consumeroffer

b. Einflußvariablen : (Konstante), Satisfaction_leisureinfra_and_consumeroffer, Satisfaction_labour_market

c. Einflußvariablen : (Konstante), Satisfaction_leisureinfra_and_consumeroffer, Satisfaction_labour_market, Satisfaction_costsofliving

d. Einflußvariablen : (Konstante), Satisfaction_leisureinfra_and_consumeroffer, Satisfaction_labour_market, Satisfaction_costsofliving, Satisfaction_publictransport_infrastructure

e. Abhängige Variable: Satisfaction_Overall

Table 50: Model summary economic category (output based on quantitative data).

ANOVA[a]

Modell		Quadratsumme	df	Mittel der Quadrate	F	Sig.
1	Regression	21,732	1	21,732	54,023	,000[b]
	Nicht standardisierte Residuen	78,043	194	,402		
	Gesamt	99,776	195			
2	Regression	27,276	2	13,638	36,306	,000[c]
	Nicht standardisierte Residuen	72,499	193	,376		
	Gesamt	99,776	195			
3	Regression	29,886	3	9,962	27,367	,000[d]
	Nicht standardisierte Residuen	69,890	192	,364		
	Gesamt	99,776	195			
4	Regression	31,919	4	7,980	22,461	,000[e]
	Nicht standardisierte Residuen	67,857	191	,355		
	Gesamt	99,776	195			

a. Abhängige Variable: Satisfaction_Overall

b. Einflußvariablen : (Konstante), Satisfaction_leisureinfra_and_consumeroffer

c. Einflußvariablen : (Konstante), Satisfaction_leisureinfra_and_consumeroffer, Satisfaction_labour_market

d. Einflußvariablen : (Konstante), Satisfaction_leisureinfra_and_consumeroffer, Satisfaction_labour_market, Satisfaction_costsofliving

e. Einflußvariablen : (Konstante), Satisfaction_leisureinfra_and_consumeroffer, Satisfaction_labour_market, Satisfaction_costsofliving, Satisfaction_publictransport_infrastructure

Table 51: ANOVA economic category (output based on quantitative data).

Koeffizienten[a]

Modell		Nicht standardisierte Koeffizienten		Standardisierte Koeffizienten	T	Sig.	Kollinearitätsstatistik	
		Regressionskoeffizient B	Standardfehler	Beta			Toleranz	VIF
1	(Konstante)	1,059	,223		4,748	,000		
	Satisfaction_leisureinfra_and_consumeroffer	,544	,074	,467	7,350	,000	1,000	1,000
2	(Konstante)	,431	,270		1,593	,113		
	Satisfaction_leisureinfra_and_consumeroffer	,462	,075	,397	6,193	,000	,919	1,089
	Satisfaction_labour_market	,283	,074	,246	3,842	,000	,919	1,089
3	(Konstante)	,307	,270		1,136	,257		
	Satisfaction_leisureinfra_and_consumeroffer	,409	,076	,350	5,365	,000	,855	1,170
	Satisfaction_labour_market	,257	,073	,223	3,513	,001	,902	1,108
	Satisfaction_costsofliving	,252	,094	,171	2,677	,008	,890	1,123
4	(Konstante)	,291	,267		1,091	,277		
	Satisfaction_leisureinfra_and_consumeroffer	,313	,085	,268	3,673	,000	,667	1,500
	Satisfaction_labour_market	,264	,072	,229	3,647	,000	,901	1,110
	Satisfaction_costsofliving	,232	,093	,158	2,487	,014	,883	1,132
	Satisfaction_publictransport_infrastructure	,143	,060	,166	2,392	,018	,736	1,359

a. Abhängige Variable: Satisfaction_Overall

Table 52: Coefficients economic category (output based on quantitative data).

Appendix 13: Answers Question 18

Participant	Answer
10	Walking, restaurants & pubs, seaside towns
8	Trinity College
12	Work
13	Day to day, helping, chatting
14	At work - working in tourism
15	Daily at work
16	I work for one of Ireland's biggest incoming tour operators so i deal with tourists on a daily basis. Also, my office is very central in Dublin city so I come across tourists on a daily basis in person.
17	Walking to work Organizing conferences
18	Pubs Concerts On the streets
19	I commute through the city center to/from work every day and walk most places. Many tourists are asking for directions and Summer time, which bus to take or how to pay.
30	In pubs, On the street
36	Interns from oversees in my company. I also live near several large tourist attractions.
44	City
46	I interact with tourists if I am walking in town for shopping or events
49	Providing directions/information. Attending the same events.
59	The area I work in the city has a lot of tourists so when I am on a smoke break I see a lot of tourists. I like to say hello and ask them do they need help or I recommend places for them to go.
61	I work in retail. Also during travel to and from work
62	I regular try to chat to tourists when I'm out drinking/socialising to make them feel more welcome and if I overhear tourists that need directions/information regarding buses or pubs or understanding life in Ireland I will stop and try to help them.
63	if someone asks me for directions
64	I work for an international voluntary organisation and have regular visitors from all over the world to Dublin
66	I get in touch with tourists when they ask me for directions in the street.
72	On public transport Walking through town
73	Due to my job in tourism and while walking around the city I try to help if I see some Italian or Spanish-speaking tourists that may need help, indications etc.
80	Socially
83	I work at the Front Desk in a 5* hotel in the city center
85	In the work environment as I work in a tour operator
86	tourists on the bus
87	At work
88	Work related
90	Job
91	Job
92	Work
98	University life
107	Airbnb host Student accommodation Performing music
108	Work
110	Walking
113	Being in city centre
115	When out in eating and drinking. At known tourist spots. When asked a question by one. Public transport.
120	Tourist use shops and hotels near my office in Dublin 1
126	Walking around Dublin would always ask tourists if they need help with directions
137	Only on streets or in public places
148	Couchsurfing
149	None - except sharing public transport etc.
150	While navigating the city centre.
151	My job and social life

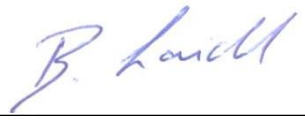
156	Never
158	Going out
160	In public transport or walking around in the city centre/at the seaside. They are everywhere.
163	Going to work
164	Every time I go to the city centre
166	in the city, when I go out, both daytime or evening
169	every day life, shops, city, at work when socialising
173	Just asked for directions or information about Dublin
174	way from and to work
177	I don't
186	Leisure activities
187	rental of apartments, streets
189	Pubs, concerts, sometimes museums
194	on the street, helping with directions
199	Only on street when they get lost and need directions.
200	General day-to-day situations, such as standing in the same queue, visiting a pub or a cafe etc.
202	Social/ consumer or going into the city centre to eat/drink/shop
207	city center
208	Work
213	Never
214	Meetups :)
215	Leisure
217	Pubs
221	Living Dublin 1, daily everywhere all the time
224	while commuting.
227	on the streets, in the pubs, public transport
239	Transportation
240	Walking by them on the street.
241	Walking around the city and in pubs
244	Shopping
247	During weekends
249	Work
251	I work in Trinity College Dublin and experience a high number of tourists every day. I have also friends and family visiting often from outside Dublin and we attend events together and points of interest.
255	Street
256	On the streets, public transport, helping them out when lost, study groups blocking streets (esp Spanish)
258	work
259	Only when I'm in town in my spare time
263	While being around in the city and visiting, also I am working in the tourism industry myself, so I am trying to observe the behaviour and decisions of the tourist around as it's one of my interests.
265	When I am walking through the city centre, leisure and hiking
266	Walking on the streets when they ask for directions, in pubs or when friends and family members are visiting.
267	City Center
268	Only when I'm trying to get past them on the footpath as they slowly amble side-by-side in a solid, impenetrable line :-P
270	Work, walking through town
276	public transport
280	Walking around city centre. Going to a pub in city centre
281	Work
283	Work
284	When I am hanging out in the parks or in the pub, also on the sea front or pier
288	Day to day Job

289	In my job
290	I work at Trinity College which is a tourist attraction
300	Work
308	In the street and restaurant
310	In my freetime when I am going into the city
312	workplace Socialising
313	Work
314	Just during the weekend
319	Weekend
322	Shopping
326	I don’t much
327	On the street, when they want directions
328	Work
329	Work
330	Mostly when going to the town. In city centre, tourists are everywhere, and it makes the centre very crowded
332	When I get out, it is common get into touch with tourists.
343	City centre
345	On the street, at parties or events. On public transport
346	Dublin city centre
350	Every time I leave the house

Table 53: List of answers question 18 (output based on Lime Survey data).

Statutory Declaration

I hereby declare that I have written the present Master thesis independently and without the help of third parties. The Master thesis did not use sources other than those specified. All verbal or analogous contents taken from the given sources have been marked by me accordingly.

10.12.2018	
Date	Signature